The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 15, 1906.

The Week.

President Roosevelt's telegram of congratulation upon the extermination of the Moro band in Jolo is as inconsiderate as the Kaiser's famous dispatch to Krüger. From even the high Imperialistic point of view, the wiping out of the Moros was nothing more than a stern bit of disagreeable police duty, about which the least said the better. To refer to it as upholding "the honor of the American flag," is a painful misuse of language. We have yet to hear any one speak of that bloody work except with misgivings and disgust. It makes no patriotic appeal whatever. And even its description by Mr. Roosevelt as a "brilliant feat of arms" is open to grave question. From the army in Manila come bitter complaints that the sacrifice of our men was wholly unnecessary, while in military circles in Washington there is sharp criticism of Gen. Wood for flinging his troops needlessly against fortifications that might have been taken in a less spectacular and murderous fashion. And the stories that are beginning to come out about women and children being included in the indiscriminate slaughter have a strange relation, if they are authentic, to the "honor of the flag." We know what we thought and said of the Dutch soldiers in Java, sparing neither age nor sex. We know what a cry of horror would have gone up in this country if such a deed had been reported of Spanish troops in 1897.

Secretary Taft has long been thought to cherish the honorable ambition to become a member of the Supreme Court, and his nomination by the President to succeed Judge Brown would in itself be commendable. In point of age, as well as by attainments and services, Mr. Taft is well fitted for this important position on the bench. His vigor and industry give good promise of usefulness for many years. On the great questions which will probably come before the Supreme Court for adjudication, in one form or another, his opinions, so far as known, are conservative. He was a theoretical anti-Imperialist before becoming an Imperialist in action. As he has been opposing the President's extreme views—or, rather, extreme lack of views—on the railway-rate question, it may be inferred that he would stand firmly for the principle of judicial review of any legislative or administrative action tending to impair the rights of property. Considered merely as a judicial appointment, then, there is nothing to say against Secretary Taft's possible transfer to the Supreme Court.

A scruple, however, suggests itself when we look at the matter from the point of view of public business. Secretary Taft has two great pieces of work on his hands, Philippine Administration and Panama. The two might be described, respectively, as a big job and a big mess. We cannot imagine Mr. Taft throwing them over in weariness and disgust; yet that impression might go abroad. The effect upon the Filipinos especially might be unhappy. Mr. Taft has had their confidence in a marked degree. They have thought of him as their ardent and indomitable friend. Only the other day, after the Senate's cruel dashing of Filipino hopes, Secretary Taft announced that he had but just begun to fight for their tariff rights. Who would continue the battle for them now? The President is not disposed to risk anything by antagonizing the standpatters; would Mr. Taft's successor be so disposed? And would not his withdrawal from the scene signify a lurch still further downward into general indifference and neglect as respects our Philippine problem? These questions suggest the regrettable aspects of the case should Mr. Taft go to the Supreme Court. Politically, his definite taking himself out of the list of Presidential possibilities would have much significance. He has been a candidate—at least contingently. In Washington, it has for some time been believed that he was the most promising man in sight for the Republican nomination. If he should now end it all, the inference would be that the appeal of a judicial career had overborne the other temptation; or perhaps that to Mr. Taft, deeply pondering, a Republican nomination in 1908 had not seemed to guarantee election.

Congress has extended the time for the dissolution of the tribal governments of the Five Civilized Tribes in Indian Territory until the problems that are peculiar to that Territory are less serious. This "respite" from March 4, the date set some time ago for the extinction of tribal organization, is a significant recognition of the effectiveness of the modern Indian as a working statesman. In the opinion of Congress, the job of turning 80,000 Indians into United States citizens, and 31,000 square miles of tribal territory into a Western State, can best be carried on, for the present at any rate, by the surviving organizations, working in connection with the United States courts and the agents of the Interior Department. So, instead of turning the modern Red Jackets out to apostrophize the setting sun, Senator Clapp and the others have invited them to assist in impressing upon Congress the importance of such questions as continuing prohibition in the new State to be erected out of their lands, and to point out to the Republican leaders that, if they persist in joining Democratic Indian Territory to Republican Oklahoma, the two Senators to be chosen from the combined State will probably be lost to the party. One proof that the red man of the Indian Territory is not inclined to sit idly by while the white man and the Great Father at Washington dictate his fate, is that the Keetoowahs of the Cherokee Nation have organized themselves into a regularly incorporated society to continue certain specific work after the final dissolution of tribal government.

There is hardly a line of the Statehood bill as it comes from the Senate but accords with the views of an overwhelming majority in both houses of Congress and responds to a strong conviction in the country at large. The Senate has simply stricken out the matter in controversy, leaving that on which perfect agreement exists. Everyone concedes that Oklahoma and Indian Territory ought to be admitted to the Union as one State. If this is not done at the present session, it should at least be clearly understood that the reasons for non-action are purely political. The alleged "tactical" reasons for combining the two Statehood proposals in one prove on examination to be exceedingly vague; and even if they were cogent, the claim of justice for a Territory that has waited so long and made such great progress as Oklahoma would outweigh them. The House last year refused a bill which would have admitted Oklahoma-Indian Territory but kept one of the Southwestern Territories waiting, thereby making it certain that they would ultimately become two States. There was some reason in that. There is none worthy of being listened to for blocking legislation again this year. Pass the pending bill, and the two-State and three-State men can take up their old fight next year without the slightest prejudice. Nothing but "playing politics" can defeat so just a measure as this.

"Senator La Follette has broken the ice in the Senate," remarked a newspaper paragrapher, after the new member's maiden speech, "but skating is still good around his colleague's desk." The confirmation last week of two of

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Spooner's appointments, which had been vigorously opposed on personal grounds by La Follette, is an event hard to reconcile with Senatorial courtesy as it exists. Of course, the wishes of individual Senators must occasionally be overridden, as in the case of Collector Crum at Charleston, for instance, but here we deal with two majority members in good standing. Again, the "particularly and personally obnoxious" argument was the ground for removal of an anti-Addicks postmaster in Delaware, a few years ago, and, strangely enough, was accepted by Henry C. Payne, for the benefit of whose former henchman Mr. La Follette's objections are now being swept aside. It must be acknowledged that the cases against the new Hongkong consul and the new Milwaukee postmaster were weak, because there was no proof of unfitness, and the factional difference was presented in its baldest light. Still, more frivolous objections than that have been deferred to in executive session. We fear that the "harmony" between Wisconsin's Senators is very like that of their respective followings at home, if we may gauge them from their newspaper organs. Both sides talk incessantly of burying the old differences, but whenever a specific issue arises they are at each other as bitterly as ever.

George E. Green of Binghamton, former State Senator, retains in undiminished vigor his "faith in human nature." From his point of view, this faith is abundantly justified. A few days ago George W. Beavers, former superintendent of salaries and allowances in the Post Office Department, pleaded guilty to conspiring with Green in order to defraud the Government in the purchase of time-recording clocks. Beavers was duly sentenced to the penitentiary. The virtuous Green, however, who had presumably conspired with Beavers, stood trial and secured acquittal. How much he owed to political influence no one can tell. Certainly, he is deeply indebted to many Binghamton friends who came on to Washington to testify that he is one of the nicest men that ever happened. Then, too, the members of the jury may have felt that Beavers was the man who really deserved punishment. Beavers was a systematic and energetic grafter; he took toll of everybody and everything that he could lay his prehensile fingers on. Green seems to have labored under the impression that if he wanted to do business with the Post-Office Department, he simply had to give Beavers a rake-off; on no other condition would Green's time-recording clocks have a chance. Green, like many other nice men who are beloved by their neighbors, accepted the conditions under which traffic with the Post-Office used to be conducted. In short, Beavers was greedy and Green was practical.

The managers of the life-insurance companies are clearly enough trying to "bluff" the Armstrong committee. They are demanding everything in the hope of getting a few small concessions. Nominally they object to nearly every one of the important recommendations. If the committee yielded, the insurance law would remain with scarcely a radical amendment—except possibly that against campaign contributions. The attitude of the big insurance companies was well summed up by President Paul Morton of the Equitable. With much suavity he assured the committee that its work has been "earnest" and "sincere," and that "in the main" he was "in entire accord" with the conclusions reached. He was for publicity and State supervision; he was against paying money to politicians, against lobbying, "rebating, and deception." Yet there were a few points on which he raised a doubt: to wit, the prohibition of investments in stocks and in syndicate participations, the limitation upon new business and the cost of procuring it, the standard forms of policies, the contingent reserve, and the requirement of an annual dividend. There is, we admit, a question as to what the exact cost of procuring new business should be, and as to the exact amount of the contingent reserve; but that the expense of getting business should be much reduced, and that there should be no more accumulation of huge surpluses, every intelligent policyholder will insist. The Armstrong bills will, we are confident, be amended in some details, but the broad principles will, we trust, remain unaltered. The Legislature will bear in mind a fact which some of the speakers on Friday were inclined to overlook: that the insurance business should be conducted for the benefit, not of Wall Street speculators, not of the officers of the companies and the "inside clique," not even of the industrious field agents, but simply and solely for the benefit of the often obscure and neglected policyholder.

The Prudential Insurance Company's successful endeavor to stave off legislative investigation serves to deepen the widespread conviction that New Jersey politics and finance would profit from an inquest like that conducted by Mr. Hughes. The pretext that affairs of the Prudential were thoroughly probed by the Armstrong committee is too flimsy to be regarded for an instant. The committee was able to consider only briefly and superficially the companies organized in other States. The argument that an investigation would make political capital for Senator Colby is even sillier. The relations between the Prudential, its allies among banks and trust companies, the Public Service Corporation, and machine politics in New Jersey have long been notorious. The election of President Dryden of the Prudential to the United States Senate was something more than a tribute to statesmanship. Accordingly, an investigation by the Legislature seems likely to make capital for any man who sincerely works for representative government in New Jersey. Mr. Colby and his friends represent this movement for honesty, and they are entitled to all the credit and all the popularity they can earn, either with or without an investigation of the Prudential. Back of all the sophistry of the Prudential's lawyers remains the impressive fact that if the Prudential and its various allies have nothing to conceal, they have nothing to fear from turning on the light.

What are the reciprocal obligations of a boss-made judge and his creator? In Cincinnati there seems to have been some little difference of opinion upon this question. A judge of the Circuit Court testified on Saturday before a legislative committee that George B. Cox, when Republican leader of Hamilton County, asked him to "find some way of reversing" the decision in an important case that was to come before him. A second judge was asked by the boss if he could not "see his way clear to reverse this case, because the Lane & Bodley Company is a large concern, and unless a compromise is effected they may be compelled to go into bankruptcy." A third judge was merely asked to "give it a full and fair consideration"; and this was what all three expressed themselves as willing to do. There is a sort of tradition that every judge ought to do substantially that in all cases coming before him. This testimony regarding the attempt to inject politics into the actual work of the courts in Cincinnati is by far the most sensational yet brought out by the Ohio investigating committee. Richard Croker told the Mazet Committee very frankly that he considered it an obligation of Tammany judges to appoint referees satisfactory to the organization, but the Cox principle seems to go a bit further.

The differences between the anthracite operators and the mine workers fall into two classes: those which relate to underlying principles of management and those which relate to details of administration, such as adjustment of grievances, hours of labor, wages, and weighing. When the operators say, "We stand unalterably for the open shop," they set up a principle which is consistent and impregnable. Assuming this attitude, they cannot agree to "collect from each employee such amounts as may be levied" by the union and turn this money over monthly "to the author-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ized committee at the colliery." That would put upon the operators the task of forcing the miner into the union and deducting his dues from his wages. If a miner does not care enough about the union to support it, the demand that the operator shall interfere is preposterous. Furthermore, the miners propose the reconstruction of the Board of Conciliation established by the Anthracite Strike Commission, with the establishment of a new machinery of committees to deal with grievances. They complain in general terms of "the delays that have occurred during the past three years in the adjustment of grievances. Indeed, there are some cases which have been in the hands of the board for two years without a final decision having been rendered; and in very few cases have final decisions been reached in less than three months' time." The operators reply with a table showing that in three years only 149 cases came before the Board of Conciliation; that there were only seven cases in which an award in favor of the men was not settled or disposed of within three months; and that in cases in which decisions favored the men, the awards were retroactive, and the men received full compensation from the date of the grievance. On this exhibition the presumption is that the present board has done its work satisfactorily.

By a unanimous vote, the members of the Society of American Artists not already Academicians have agreed to accept probationary membership in the National Academy, and thus virtually to sink the newer body in the older. The number of the Academy is to be increased from 100 to 150, so that 50 Academicians will be elected in the next few years, largely from the Society. In return for this self-abnegation, the Society secures the acceptance of its jury system, which provides for a large committee and insures against the selection and hanging of pictures becoming too much of a family compact. Art-lovers will be heartily glad that this long-mooted union has been successfully effected, and we trust that the enlarged and rejuvenated Academy will not long be kept asking for the larger exhibition quarters it urgently needs. The recent policy of the Academy has been extremely liberal as regards recognizing new talent, and the membership of the federated body will be too large to become perilously honorific or to involve an invidious measure of personal prerogative. On all grounds, it is well that an unnecessary duplication of exhibitions and laborious committee work has been done away with. The reorganized Academy may reasonably claim a more generous public support than was ever accorded to either of its constituent bodies.

Premier Rouvier's defeat in the Chamber of Deputies was doubly unfortunate, since he was Foreign Minister as well, and was apparently carrying his Moroccan policy to a successful conclusion. The adverse vote of March 7 signifies little except as a reminder of the capriciousness of French political action. M. Rouvier was beaten by a fortuitous and unnatural alliance of Clericals, Nationalists, and Socialists of various complexions. The reactionaries were outraged at his venturing to enforce the separation law by inventorying Church property; the extreme Socialists were scandalized because he had promised to do this work gradually and with proper regard for the sentiments of the various communities affected. M. Rouvier is reported to have said that he could have had a handsome majority by merely promising to harry the Church remorselessly. The readiness with which the Socialists have turned against an able Prime Minister at a critical moment in the foreign policy of the nation, illustrates their academic detachment and political irresponsibility. M. Rouvier will retain the gratitude of all lovers of peace for his patient and tactful conduct of the delicate negotiations leading up to the Algeciras conference.

President Fallières has seen to it that the change of Ministry should involve personnel rather than principles. Premier Sarrien represents much the same sort of radicalism as Rouvier; M. Léon Bourgeois will continue unbroken at the Foreign Office Rouvier's policy of conciliation; the new Premier, like the old, will depend upon a composite majority of Radicals and Socialists. In appointing M. Aristide Briand, the reporter of the Separation act, to the Ministry of Instruction, the new Government makes a considerable overture to the Extreme Left, and engages itself to a more actively anti-clerical policy. This it may safely do, for the general elections will be held in a month or so, and a new Chamber of Deputies may bring about a general realignment of groups. The present Government, though of a weighty and authoritative sort, may turn out to be only a stop-gap. Anti-clericalism and government by the Radical-Socialist *bloc* have run about the course of life generally allotted to political movements in France; and while the anti-clerical and socialistic policies that have prevailed since the resignation of Waldeck-Rousseau undoubtedly retain their popularity, their electoral support becomes increasingly perfunctory. Many observers of the situation feel that some kind of a return to moderate republicanism is impending, but such a movement, at present, would have to seek its chiefs largely among the *ralliés*, a group of Republican converts which, though containing many statesmen of ability, hardly has the confidence of the people.

In the disputes and anxieties about Germans and French, the Moroccans have been largely forgotten. We have all been so absorbed in watching the cooks quarrel about the sauce in which the fowl is to be cooked, that we have given scarce a thought to the fowl itself. M. Victor Bérard's book on 'L'Affaire Marocaine,' just published by Armand Colin, has some valuable chapters on conditions in Morocco. He shows how nature makes that country look more to Europe than to Africa. In government and religion, too, Morocco requires exceptional treatment on account of exceptional circumstances. And that chronic disorder within Morocco seriously affects the French in Algeria, the facts put beyond doubt. The common frontier is for miles only an imaginary line in the shifting desert sands. Raiders cross it with impunity. It cannot well be denied, therefore, that the urgency of suppressing the contraband trade in arms, and of policing the disturbed frontier and the seaports, is peculiarly felt by France. It would appear that the conference has decided upon a native gendarmerie, officered by French and Spanish subjects, and under a sort of international inspection. Moroccan finances are also to be under joint control. Perfect equality of trade for all nations is guaranteed. Thus the dreaded "Tunisification" of Morocco is guarded against. Whether the great commercial development which all have talked of will immediately follow in Morocco must remain doubtful to one who follows M. Bérard's history. The natives may have perverse views of their own on that subject.

The Austrian Government's franchise bill, now under discussion in the Reichsrath, marks the end of substantially a revolution. Without the shedding of a drop of blood, without the menace of a general strike or serious threats against the Government, the monarchy has decided that it is best to grant general, equal, and direct suffrage throughout Austria. This action is all the more extraordinary in view of the bitter race feeling, not only between the various parts of the Empire, but within the confines of Austria itself, where the battle for the survival of the German tongue goes on with increasing intensity and heat. Half a century ago such a victory for democratic principles would have been hailed as another great triumph for the doctrines of this country. Today, however, it will excite but languid interest here. For if one of the oldest, most aristocratic and custom-bound monarchies of Europe is of its own accord giving way to liberalism, the American tendency is for the moment in the other direction.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG.
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE LATEST MORO SLAUGHTER.

Congress should rigidly inquire into the latest "battle" in the Philippines. For five or six years past, at irregular intervals, we have had from the Moro islands similar cable accounts of fighting. In most cases the dispatches have been almost identical with those of Friday, affirming the wiping out of a dangerous band of renegades or ladrones at the cost of ten or fifteen American lives, with no prisoners taken, or wounded left on the field. There is usually the same assurance that the other Moros welcome the destruction of this particular set. This time there seems to be lacking the regular positive affirmation that peace is now at hand. But it remains to ask, what possible military excuse was there for charging up a mountain cone, 2,100 feet high, to attack an almost impregnable fort? Was there no possibility of forcing these Moros to surrender by starving them out?

We are moved to put these questions by recollections of the attack upon the Bayan fort in Mindanao in June, 1902, by troops of the Twenty-seventh Infantry. This stronghold contained only 80 or 90 Moros, every one of whom was killed when they were rushed by the Americans. Why they should have been attacked at all has mystified the army ever since, in view of the fact that there was little or no water found in the fort, and that it was surrounded on all sides. But Gen. Baldwin got his brigadier-generalcy, and a renown which never could have been his had the fort merely surrendered after a siege. Why mourn the officers and men who fell? Assuming that all the ugly echoes of this fight still reverberating are merely army gossip, it is interesting to note that the two junior officers who are now seeking brigadier-generalcies in Washington are basing their claims on alleged distinguished service against the Moros. Major H. L. Scott, for instance, asks this reward because he made, under Gen. Wood's direction, a similar battue of 300 Moros near Jolo, in November, 1903.

Now, Major Scott, Capt. Pershing, and others may have really earned promotion, but the country has no way of knowing it. In England, if news of such a fight, on the Afghan border, should reach London, the War Office would be open to Parliamentary cross-questioning and would be made to show that the conflict was unavoidable. There are cases where officers have been brought to book for such affairs. With us there is no check of any kind. Congressmen and Senators rarely go beyond the press, and the Philippine Committees concern themselves only with legislative matters. The Secretary of War controls the situation, and is, of course, kept hourly informed—when the cable is not broken—during one of these punitive expeditions. But he did not think it worth while even to refer in his last annual report to conditions among the Moros by so much as a single word. The President, however, declared in his last message that "the Jolo disturbance was put an end to by several sharp and short engagements, and now peace prevails." He must, therefore, be astonished to learn that the extinguished band had long been a nuisance by reason of their raids on friendly Moros, and that they had stirred up a "dangerous condition of affairs."

This much is certain: if there is any definite policy being pursued in regard to the Moros, the country is not aware of it. There seems to be merely an aimless drifting along, with occasional bloody successes and now and then the report of a victory of peace. But the fighting keeps up steadily, and no one can discover that we are making any progress with the Moros. What, for instance, does it avail us to have built a wagon-road into Lake Lanao country? Any trade we may be getting out of it cannot pay for the road-making, and no settler, whether Filipino or American, will venture into that country. Unless it is to favor an occasional trader, why should we invade the Moros at all? Our tenure of the islands is uncertain, and the task of civilizing, according to our standards, or gradually exterminating them, will be a matter of years. If any one doubts this, we refer him to an article in the *Atlantic Monthly* by Major Robert L. Bullard, Twenty-eighth Infantry, the only officer who seems to have made headway with the Mindanao Moros by peaceable means.

"There is," he says, "no possibility of living in quiet with unoccupied or uncowed Moros. I preferred the method of work." He finds that by this policy government and civilization have gained upon the Moros, owing to his readiness to utilize Moro instruments and his sticking to a strictly autocratic administration. Whether his work has survived his return to the United States, he does not, and perhaps cannot, state. But here again the need of a definite policy must be apparent. In Jolo there seems to have been a pretty consistent attempt to try coercion. With what results? Gen. Wood was certain two years ago that the trouble was all over. Major Bullard says that "a kill-and-burn policy can never succeed with the Moros, can do nothing more than destroy them"; and yet even he feels it necessary to punish rigorously if a hair of an American's head is touched, in order to enforce respect for the flag and the uniform. Surely, the time has come for a final decision as to what our policy shall be—whether it shall be kill and burn or the work-programme of Major Bullard; whether we shall content ourselves with holding the coast towns and preventing slave raids on the Filipinos, or whether we must settle down to a century's job of forcing our civilization upon the Moros. In the latter case, they are at least entitled to deal with permanent, highly trained colonial officials—if such there be—instead of being subject to the whims, fancies, theories, good or bad, and ambitions of army officers relieved after every two years.

THE NEW NATURALIZATION BILL.

The bill looking to a reform in the manner of naturalizing aliens was brought before the House on Saturday. For twenty years past nearly every annual message of the President has spoken of the frauds committed against our citizenship, and asked Congress for remedial laws. In 1890 the House made an effort to do something and secured a report from its Judiciary Committee, but did no more, and in the past fifteen years has not touched the subject. In the meantime the frauds have increased. Naturalizations conferred for voting purposes immediately before elections have become more scandalously numerous; manufactories of spurious certificates of naturalization have been discovered; it has been found that the sale of certificates to aliens is an increasing traffic; perjury before the courts in naturalization proceedings has become more brazen, and the courts themselves have become more careless. Only last year the Massachusetts Legislature passed a law authorizing the holding of night sessions by the courts for naturalization purposes. At such sessions there is, of course, a minimum of publicity, and the courts can connive at improper naturalizations with small danger of detection.

During the past four years the Department of Justice has waged effective warfare against those who have committed naturalization frauds in several of the large cities, and has sent several hundred malefactors to jail; and the State Department brought the attention of Congress to the matter last winter in a forcible report. The burden of Mr. Hay's complaint was that, in performing his duty of protecting naturalized Americans when they were abroad, he was often uncertain whether the person he was protecting had been naturalized lawfully or not; and he said it was a thankless task to intervene with a foreign government in behalf of a man, and to discover, after the intervention, that he had obtained his American citizenship through fraud. Mr. Hay also showed that there was a deplorable lack of uniformity in the manner of conferring naturalization by the different courts throughout the country, notwithstanding the authority conferred upon Congress by the Constitution "to establish an uniform rule of naturalization."

The last Congress adjourned without taking action, and the President creat-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ed a Commission to study the whole question. The members were Gaillard Hunt, chief of the Passport Bureau for the State Department, Milton D. Purdy, Assistant Attorney-General for the Department of Justice, and Richard K. Campbell, law officer of the Bureau of Immigration for the Department of Commerce and Labor. When Congress met this winter, the President laid before it an exhaustive report and definite recommendations. The Commission had not gathered any additional data on the subject of frauds practised under the present laws, assuming, apparently, that the frauds were of such common knowledge that no one needed to be further enlightened concerning them; but, considering the statutes from various aspects, the Commission indicated what additions and amendments were necessary to prevent the evils which have flourished unchecked. These recommendations have in the main been incorporated in the bill now before the House.

Probably the most important feature is that which provides that the Bureau of Immigration shall be enlarged into the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, and shall have supervision of naturalization matters. There is no Federal supervision now, and Congress has been more diligent in seeking ways to extend its powers into fields where its jurisdiction is doubtful than in perfecting the laws on subjects in which its authority is undisputed. Up to the present time sporadic prosecutions in a few places have been the sum of Federal activity, and there has been no way by which the Federal Government could protect itself in advance against the commission of the frauds. The bill now pending provides that every application for naturalization shall be reported to the authorities at Washington in ample time to permit the Government to contest the granting of the naturalization.

We notice, however, that the House bill retains the requirement of the old law, that a declaration of intention to become a citizen shall be made two years before naturalization can be conferred, whereas the Commission recommended that the declaration of intention be abolished as useless in preventing fraudulent naturalization, and as mischievous in that it confers certain rights of citizenship upon aliens. It is a fact that in nine States—Arkansas, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Texas, Oregon, and Wisconsin—an alien who has made the declaration of intention can vote; but it is also true that all of those States which formerly gave this privilege and which have of recent years made changes in their Constitutions, have stricken this provision out. Undoubtedly, the tendency is to restrict suffrage to citizens, and it is probable that the States which now permit foreigners to vote will amend their Constitutions in this particular as soon as they have the opportunity to do so. The Committee's bill, however, limits the life of a declaration of intention to five years, and its prolonged improper use would therefore be impossible. As there is undoubtedly a strong sentiment in favor of requiring an alien to secure naturalization step by step, the retention of the declaration of intention does not appear to be unwise. The other features of the bill are commendable, and it is noticed, as a refreshing innovation, that instead of entailing additional expenditure upon the Government, it will bring revenue into the Treasury by requiring that half the naturalization fees collected shall be a Government tax. The amount thus received will probably be twice as much as the new machinery of supervision will cost.

A UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF ART.

For several years past Columbia University has had the intention of organizing a school of fine and applied arts. This project, which had long been accepted in principle, has been successively advanced by an alliance with the National Academy and by the reorganization of the school of architecture. It now gains a skeleton organization, through the alignment of the existing art resources of the University under Prof. James R. Wheeler as acting dean. This well-known classical archæologist is no novice in the work of organization. He has for years represented the American School at Athens and other archæological enterprises abroad, and has been editor of the *American Journal of Archæology*. Combining in a rare degree exact scholarship with executive ability and a wide acquaintance, he is emphatically the man for the place.

While one feels that the new school starts under excellent auspices, it can do no good and might do harm to represent this beginning as other than it is. It is, as we have noted, essentially a realignment of existing, not an immediate access of new, resources. For example, the appointment to the staff of the president of the National Academy and of the director and assistant director of the Metropolitan Museum, while it secures a most valuable advisory element, does little to provide for instruction of university grade in art history. Mr. Dielman's activities will naturally be devoted to the Academy Schools of Design, which are to become what we must regard as an extra-academic branch of the University; Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke and Dr. Edward Robinson will hardly find time to give regular university courses in their specialties. In other words, what the University gains by this forward step is rather good will and advice of considerable future value than any immediate increase in teaching force. It gives notice of its needs to its friends; it cannot as yet, except in the fields of architecture and of classical and Chinese archæology, make any serious appeal to university students of the history of art.

This makes it desirable that the new school of art should define its policy with all promptitude, pending the recruiting of its faculty. Many friends of the University fear a confusion of aims. For example, courses in the practice of sculpture, painting, engraving, and the like are excellent things, but they have no established place in a university curriculum. Columbia certainly does not mean to award the usual academic degrees for proficiency with brush or pencil. Similarly, the public lecturing on the arts which Columbia has maintained most successfully for years is an admirable work in itself. One may rejoice that this means of popular recreation and education receives the dignity of university sanction without for a moment imagining that it has anything to do with the study of art in a university. Assuming, then, that the practical schools of design will find their place in the academic order and that public lecturing will continue as a most laudable work of supererogation, one might well ask, What of the remainder? What is the scope of a university department of art?

It is, in brief, a school in which the history and theory of the arts are taught by specialists with a view to training up original investigators of the æsthetic and historical problems of the arts. In other words, it is quite as definitely an institution for training specialists as is a bacteriological or an astrophysical laboratory. It has next to nothing to do with the memory of the hand that is so necessary in the practice of the arts, and everything to do with the memory of the eye. Its primary materials are the artistic remains of all time, *in situ* or preserved in museums; its every-day working resources are photographic or other exact reproductions of these originals. Accordingly, the most fruitful university study in these branches is conducted near or actually in museums. With characteristic practicality, the French Ministry of Fine Arts has localized the real study of art history in the École du Louvre, reserving for the École des Beaux-Arts and the Sorbonne those more or less popular lectureships which are profitable to artists and amateurs. From this point of view, the presence of two members of the Metropolitan Museum staff on the Columbia faculty of the fine arts is very significant. At the Museum will naturally be centralized all the material for the study of the history of art. Such collections are a necessary part of every curator's

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

working equipment. In the future the Museum will probably provide precisely the materials the Columbia student of art requires; naturally the relations between the two institutions will become increasingly intimate.

In order that such relations may be profitable, however, Columbia must first recruit a university staff in art history. At present Dean Wheeler and Professor Hirt, who is an authority on Chinese art, enjoy the distinction of being about the only members of the school who are specialists in quite the university sense. This preëminence they will undoubtedly be glad to share as fast as the generous friends of the University shall provide the means. The cause makes the strongest popular appeal; for, if the primary object of the school is to produce those bat-like creatures, connoisseurs and polemics in the history of art, there will be an overflow readily convertible into those desirable by-products, taste and culture. College courses will be none the less effective as art propaganda because the lecturer is something better than a repository of vague enthusiasms; public lecturing certainly will not languish under the requirement of accuracy; our "deëducated" college graduates will be less likely to buy spurious masterpieces, old and new, if they have been counselled by professors who know artistic reality from its abounding imitations. In fact, there are few fields of special research where the relation between minute investigation and popular education may be so direct and fruitful.

These considerations lend great interest to the actual programme which Dean Wheeler and his associates will, presumably, issue in due season. At present the Columbia art department, with its combination of pedagogical, practical, and theoretical courses, bears too great a resemblance to an omnibus of the roving type—a most useful and worthy vehicle, into which, however, no wise traveller steps or pays his fare until he has received adequate information as to directions and destination. Pending such a route-card, one has the comfortable assurance that the Columbia art 'bus is in good hands.

SALARIES FOR M.P.'S.

By the large majority of 238, the House of Commons adopted, on March 7, a resolution that members of Parliament should be paid salaries. The sum of $1,500 yearly was specified as the allowance members ought to have towards "defraying the heavy expenses inseparable from their office." Similar proposals have often been made in the press and in Parliament, but no such emphatic record of opinion has before been had. It is one of the results of the great electoral upheaval which displaced so many Tory gentlemen by labor representatives. And though the Premier put his veto upon the project for the present, it seems clear that the movement will soon gather force sufficient to compel the Government to give way. We may expect, therefore, in time to see M.P.'s drawing their pay like Deputies and Congressmen.

Argue as one will that this is only an inevitable development of English democracy, it comes as a sort of disagreeable surprise. In England, we may be sure, it will be a shock to many of the best people of the country. They will see in it the glory of Parliament departing. The venerable theory has been that the Commons are simply the gentlemen of England, turning aside for a few months in the year from their ordinary pursuits and amusements to transact the nation's business. The honorable and dignified aspect of this service lay in the fact that it was both voluntary and unpaid. So sharp has been the feeling of incompatibility between a place in the Commons and a paid office that any member accepting an "office of profit" under the Crown has immediately to vacate his seat. He must then submit himself afresh to his constituents, who will say whether they wish him to go back as their representative and also as a servant of the Crown.

Then there has also been the idea, admittedly more beautiful in conception than in practice, that the House of Commons was the finest club in Europe. Englishmen have clung to this even while it was plainly vanishing. The 85 Irish Nationalists long since broke down the club convention. What sort of club courtesy could stand the strain of one-eighth of the membership rising at every meeting to jeer at the president and to denounce the board of governors as incompetent and knavish? It is the Irish, too, who have helped undermine the tradition that a member of Parliament must be a man of independent means, who would scorn the thought of a salary. Many of the Irish representatives are poor men, and their expenses have been paid—not, it is true, by the Government, but by various Home Rule organizations. By so much, this has cut into the old convention. And some Labor members, it is understood, have also accepted contributions to their support while at Westminster. So that the change has already begun. Fashion notes in the English press have remarked that the House of Commons is not nearly so well dressed as it used to be; and Tories who assert that the present House touches low-water-mark politically, point gloomily, in confirmation of their despondent view, to the unprecedented array of baggy trousers and shocking neckties.

Clothes do not make the legislator, but any indication, even an external one, of a falling off in the quality of representatives should arouse concern. What Englishmen have long contended is that the non-payment of members of the House kept out of it mere wind-bags and agitators, and thereby tended to make legislation more serious and informed. A salary, they will now say, will open the doors to empty orators and disturbers of the peace, who will be able to wheedle constituencies into returning them. Doubtless the Labor members could make a fair retort on the score of the assumed superiority of all "gentlemen" in the Commons. They could appropriate John Morley's terrible exposure of the historic blundering of the aristocracy on most of the great moral and political questions of the past hundred years. Yet every impartial man must admit that, if to make the members of Parliament salaried is to make them of coarser grain, and especially if it is to develop in England that class of legislators which is too numerous with us —those who go into public life for the money that can be made out of it—the change should be both deplored and resisted.

The great English safeguards against corruption in Parliament are, however, independent of the question of paying members. All money bills are within the control of the Government. We saw the effect of this promptly illustrated in Campbell-Bannerman's attitude last week. He refused to find the money to pay members. That is responsible government. It takes it out of the power of private members to log-roll wasteful or corrupt measures through. So long as this condition persists, the temptations to devise legislation for the pecuniary benefit of its promoters must be less in England than with us. And English politics has escaped that fountain of political corruption—the protective tariff. With no possibility of passing a customs law to put millions into the pockets of private citizens, there is no opening for that unholy system of bribery and corruption which passes with us under the name of protection. This is one of the strongest points made by English opponents of Chamberlain. Once give Parliament power to vote bounties and money-grants to special interests, Lord Rosebery argued forcibly, and its purity will be gone. Public men are by nature no better in England than in the United States, but the former country has not debauched them by throwing the great money prizes of the protective system into the hands of legislators. With that danger staved off, the English people may view with equanimity the plan to pay their members of Parliament.

TWO ELECTORAL OVERTHROWS.

In spite of Mr. Chamberlain's confident tone, the defeat of protection in Great Britain in 1906 was really far more decisive than was the overthrow

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of free silver in this country ten years earlier. According to the London *Times*, the present ministerial party have in Great Britain a popular majority of more than 600,000 in a total vote of less than 5,300,000. The sound-money men in the United States in 1896 had just about the same majority as the free-traders now have in Great Britain, but the total vote polled in the United States was more than two and a half times as great as that cast over the sea. Moreover, if Mr. Bryan lost in the East, he gained west of the Missouri River. In that section of the country he carried by overwhelming majorities States which had never before given their electoral votes to any Democratic candidate for the Presidency. There was no such counter current discoverable anywhere at the recent British elections. Among the members of Parliament from England alone, the Unionists are in a minority of 211. In five counties, Kent, Sussex, Warwickshire, Shropshire, and Rutlandshire, they elected a majority of the delegation. In three others, Surrey, Hertfordshire, and Worcestershire, the representation in the present Parliament is equally divided between Unionists and Liberals. In each of the remaining 33 there is a Liberal majority, and in eleven of the 33 not a single Unionist was returned. Of the Scottish members, 10 are protectionists, 2 Unionist free-traders, 60 Liberals. Wales has not sent a single Unionist of any description to Parliament. Out of the 103 members for Ireland, only 18 are Unionists.

Mr. Chamberlain and other protectionists have pointed out that, while their party has returned a trifle less than one-fourth of the total members for Great Britain, it has polled 44 per cent. of the vote of that island. Ten years ago Mr. Bryan received 47 per cent. of the total vote, exclusive of that given to the Prohibition and Socialist candidates. He secured 39 per cent. of the electoral vote. The supporters of the late Ministry have elected but 24 per cent. of the British members of Parliament. That, relatively to votes polled, they won so much smaller a proportion of local victories than did the advocates of free silver in this country, is due to two causes. First, they polled 3 per cent. less of the popular vote; that is to say, the free-trade majority was, in proportion to the total vote polled, 6 per cent. greater than was the sound-money majority in this country in 1896. Such a difference in the relative size of the popular majority, equivalent as it would be in this country to an increase of 850,000 in plurality of one Presidential candidate over another, is always likely, under normal conditions, to make an enormous difference in the proportion of constituencies carried by the two parties to the contest.

Again, in all the South and the trans-Missouri West, Mr. Bryan was far stronger than Mr. McKinley. There is no considerable portion of Great Britain in which the same may be said for the protectionists. They carried relatively few seats because in relatively very few places were they in the majority. Their aggregate vote was large, because the conservative party in England standing for anything on any platform will always poll a great many votes. The Liberals were committed to free-trade. They were also committed to the repeal of the Education Act. They were hostile to the Licensing Act. They were pledged to a legislative reversal of the Taff Vale decision. Most of their prominent leaders had formerly been public advocates of home rule for Ireland and have never recanted their opinions. Many hundreds of thousands of voters in Great Britain dislike or distrust protection, but they dislike some one or all of these other things still more. To a greater extent than at any time before 1886, the Conservative party is socially the party of the upper classes. Disputes over the Education Act have made it even more than has been usual the party of the Church. The very provisions of its Licensing Act which are so unpopular in temperance circles, command for it the enthusiastic support of the liquor interest. In England the party of the squire, the parson, and the publican can always command many votes, no matter whether it be for protection or against it; but, standing for protection at the late election, there were comparatively few places in which it could command enough votes to win.

In Great Britain in 1900, 381 Unionists, 185 Liberals, and one Nationalist were chosen. Of the 185 seats then carried by the Liberals only four have this year returned Unionists, and in two of these the Unionists won merely because the free-trade votes were divided between Liberal and Labor candidates. On the other hand, of the 381 seats to which Unionists were returned in 1900, no fewer than 246 were lost to that party this year. The mere accidents of the election were, if anything, favorable to the Unionists, to whom the rivalries of Liberal and Labor candidates gave nine seats which they would not otherwise have won. Nine more of them were returned by the Universities and the City of London, practically all of whose voters had also voted elsewhere. Even in the matter of winning close seats they had unusual good fortune. Fourteen of their 157 members were elected by majorities below 100 each, while of the 430 Liberal and Labor seats only 15 were carried by majorities of less than 100.

In not a single county of England did the Unionists return more members in 1906 than they did in 1886, 1895, or 1900. In only one did they return more than they returned in 1892. It is true that Mr. Chamberlain showed that his hold upon Birmingham was still absolutely unshaken, but even in the Midlands as a whole the Unionists fared less well this year than they have done at any election since and including 1886. Even as compared with 1885, before Mr. Gladstone's home-rule policy had split the Liberal party, the Liberal gain in Great Britain was great and decided. In that year the Liberals carried 333 British seats. They (counting Labor members as Liberals) have this year won 427, a gain of 94. Only in Durham in the north and in Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Shropshire, and Herefordshire, in the Midlands, have the Unionists done better than the conservatives did 21 years ago. Nowhere except in the three Midland counties of Warwickshire, Worcestershire, and Shropshire have their gains been important. In 1885 those counties sent 7 Tories and 20 Liberals to Parliament. Now they are represented by 17 Unionists and 10 Liberals. Of this net Unionist gain of 10 seats, 8 are contributed by Birmingham and Aston Manor, and another is the seat for East Worcestershire, for which Mr. Austen Chamberlain sits. Indeed, wherever, as compared with 1885, the Unionists have made any marked gains, they can in most instances be traced to the influence of some local leader or magnate. Of the 333 seats for which in 1885 Liberals were returned, only 36 sent Unionists to the present Parliament, and of these 36 at least 9 are to be put down to the influence of the Chamberlains, and one, the Aylesbury division of Buckinghamshire, to that of the Rothschilds. Another like case was that of Victor Cavendish, who, elected for West Derbyshire in 1885 as a Liberal, has since sat for the same constituency as a Unionist.

Political prophecy is extra-hazardous, but it seems unlikely that the future history of protection in England will differ very greatly from that of free silver in this country. Mr. Bryan, after the election of 1896, was hailed as a peerless leader just as Mr. Chamberlain is now acclaimed. It is even possible, though not probable, that the Unionists in England will make the mistake made by the Democratic party in 1900, and go into another campaign as protectionists. Much more likely their policy will be to avail themselves of some of the divisions which are bound to manifest themselves in the large and heterogeneous minister l majority. If they do, they will seek o get the votes of some of the factions now making up that majority by taking up some new issue; and in order to win on this they will be forced to pledge themselves to let the present fiscal system of the United Kingdom alone.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

JESSIE WHITE MARIO.

For forty years this name has been familiar, by its initials, to readers of the *Nation*, as that of this journal's Italian correspondent by way of eminency. Last week we published her animated account of the new Italian Ministry.

"The enclosed pages," ran her private note of February 15, "are the first that I have been able to write since I last sent a letter to the *Nation* [that is, since September, 1905]. I have been very ill, but the new hopes for Italy have wakened me a little. . . . Of course, my book on Stansfeld [the English Mazzinian Liberal] lies three-fourths finished on the shelf. This is to me a dire grief, as it tells of the pioneers who rendered possible the Liberal triumph of to-day. John Burns in the English, and Pantano in the Italian, Ministry—really, I have a Pisgah view, at the age of seventy-five, of the Promised Land."

Two days before her letter appeared in the *Nation*, her funeral procession, as the *Evening Post's* London correspondent telegraphs, "passed the Casa Guidi in Florence, which was decorated in honor of the centenary of Elizabeth Barrett Browning." The association was just, as well as striking. In his chapter on "Italy's English Sympathizers," in his 'Portraits of the Sixties,' Justin McCarthy writes:

"Another portrait properly belongs to this group. It is that of Jessie White Mario, an Englishwoman, who married an Italian and devoted herself with enthusiasm to the advocacy of the Italian cause. She had a remarkable eloquence, and became a regular lecturer on behalf of the cause. At one time she used to draw large audiences in London and in many cities and towns of Great Britain. I have a distinct recollection of some lectures I heard her deliver, and I was greatly impressed by her power of expression and her admirable elocution. She had the gift of making the tones of her voice correspond in every word and note with the feelings she desired to express, and she threw a certain poetic charm into passages which, if spoken by another, might have seemed but commonplace declamation. I had only a slight and passing acquaintance with her, but she impressed me as I have seldom been impressed by any of the women lecturers—many, indeed, in number—to whom I have listened in this country and the United States. Her career was especially characteristic of the epoch I am now endeavoring to illustrate, and she is well worthy of any tribute which can be paid to her by the presentation of her portrait in this chapter."

Her Italian husband was Alberto Mario, a well descended native of Lendinara, whom Carducci has styled "the most naturally republican of the Italians, the most artistically Italian of the republicans, whose ideal fatherland was Athens without slaves, Venice without the Ten, Florence without priests." Born in 1825, he flung himself into the militant revolutionary struggle of 1848, beginning with the Venetian campaign. Thereafter, in behalf of Italian unity, he suffered the usual experiences of persecution, imprisonment, proscription, and exile. With Mazzini's appearance in Genoa in May, 1857, to direct the disastrous expedition against Sapri, coincided Miss White's as correspondent of the London *Daily News*—and more, as active promoter of the expedition together with Mario, to whom she was or directly became engaged, so that, both having been imprisoned, they exchanged fervent letters from their respective cells. Released, and repairing to England, they were married in Portsmouth in the autumn, and Mario resumed his journalistic propaganda. At James Stansfeld's and Peter Taylor's in London they mingled with the exiled Italians—Mazzini, Saffi, Campanella—and their English supporters.

In the latter part of 1858, Signora Mario having been invited to lecture publicly in the United States on and for Italy, her husband accompanied her to this country, and himself addressed the Italian colony in New York in December, and in January, 1859. They journeyed no farther than Washington, and their natural acquaintance was with the anti-slavery circle. The outbreak of the Franco-Austrian hostilities recalled them before they could hear the first bell of our civil war, at Harper's Ferry; and they reached de-Austrianized Milan on July 25, only to be imprisoned afresh at Lagoscuro as "Austrian spies," and so conducted from jail to jail to the Swiss border, where, at Lugano, from September, 1859, to May, 1860, they had (as Carducci says) "the consolation of daily domestic intercourse with Carlo Cattaneo, the honor of Mazzini's confidences and of Cavour's persecution." This persecution drove Mario in hiding from the Canton of Ticino, and forfeited his chance to be one of Garibaldi's *Mille* in the expedition against Sicily; but he and his wife joined the second expedition, and she distinguished herself as the heroine of the ambulance corps.

We can follow Alberto Mario's career no further. He had a mind of truly Italian versatility, as his published writings show: 'Dante and the Dante Codices,' 'Our Contemporary Philosophers,' 'The Stones of New Florence,' 'Lorenzo Canozio and the Renaissance,' 'The Man in Foscolo,' 'The Red Shirt,' 'Carlo Cattaneo.' He remained true to his republican convictions and refused to enter a monarchical Parliament. He died in 1883, and now his widow took up his pen, with a like versatility, treating of Garibaldi and his Times, of Mazzini's Life and Apostolate, of Agostino Bertani, of G. Nicotera. In her *Nation* letters, as our files will show, she followed closely the political development of the peninsula, interspersing these comments with accounts of Florentine Mosaics, or Venetian Glass, or the Italian Industrial Exposition, or the opening of the St. Gothard Tunnel. Ever her thoughts were with the great idealist leaders of the Italian new birth, and she played the part of Old Mortality in editing their writings or memoirs. Among their successors her warmest attachment went out to Carducci. In her final note to us last month she wrote: "I have Mazzinian and Carduccian treasures in store for you if the spring will be kind to my heart and brain." Her two-volume Life of Bertani was issued in 1888. Last year (April 24), "after a six months' painful and tedious illness" and enforced abstention from pen and paper, her 'Life of Sir James Stansfeld, and Mazzini and the Friends of Italy in England,' though "almost finished," was "still on the shelf." A sharp relapse followed, but on May 30 she was "again to the fore." On July 12:

"I am better, but not well; have got through the heavy exams [at the Women's College in Florence] at last, and am now ordered off to the seaside at Via Reggio, where I go on the 16th. If I could hope to get my Stansfeld-Mazzini book ready by the time the Liberals 'come back again,' I would ask no more of fate. Surely, surely, we shall not return to 'protection' in old England??? If we do, then 'manhood suffrage' has proved a delusion and a snare."

To our deep regret we never met this admirable woman, an honor to her sex and to Britain's great name for ardent, world-wide philanthropy. She had a soul sensitive to all misery: our readers will recall her exposition of the horrors of the subterranean life of Naples, of the sulphur mines of Sicily. She was responsive to every proletary movement for relief from oppression or distress, though opposed to violence in the justest cause. She was ever giving of her scanty income to the poor. Her mode of living was almost ascetic. A young American couple who brought her a letter of introduction from us, were so impressed at once by her nobility and by the bareness of her surroundings that they said to each other, at the foot of the stairs on leaving, Shall we not sell our letter of credit, give her the proceeds, and return by the next steamer? On this being reported to generous hearts on this side of the water, and a sum being forwarded to her on a pretext of previous acquaintance, she accepted it—for the orphans of the Garibaldian connection.

TURNER REDISCOVERED.

London, February, 1906.

The opening of a Turner Room in the Tate Gallery has made something like a sensation in London. The doors of that remote gallery are as besieged as the doors of a popular theatre, and the broughams and motors lining the roadway in front show that the sensation is sanctioned by fashion. But if the hangers-on of the correct world are flocking there because it is the correct thing to do, all the art world is going still more eagerly because there can be no question of the interest of this new Turner collection, now so suddenly displayed to the public after having been cheerfully forgotten for years.

I do not know which is the more extraordinary: that the authorities should at last admit their mistake in having overlooked these pictures, or that they should have been guilty of such carelessness in the beginning. Perhaps it is easier to make the admission during the present interregnum at the National Gallery, left for some months past without a director, when any action taken seems to be almost unofficial. I am not one of the people who think it a national crime that all the Turners owned by the nation should not have a place on the walls of one or another of the nation's galleries and museums. The generosity of Turner, it must be confessed, was just a trifle overpowering, for it will be remembered that his bequest to the country included over twenty thousand pictures and drawings, all told. To have hung every one of them, and to have kept them together as he desired, would have meant to put up a new building, or to banish the Old Masters to the cellars, where numbers of the Turners have for so long lain hidden. Tin boxes for a certain proportion of the watercolors does not strike me as an altogether criminal alternative. But it is when the boxes are looked into that there may come the realization of the want of judgment exercised

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

in selecting the examples to be shut up in them, and you cannot see the twenty-odd pictures now at the Tate Gallery without wondering upon what principle the finest among them were chosen to lie for years neglected in the cellars of the National Gallery, or in its offices and odd corners to which the public is not allowed to penetrate.

Two reasons have been given for the treatment they have received. One is that they were simply forgotten just as old rubbish might be forgotten in some long closed attic in one's own house; the other, that, according to the authorities, their slightness of execution and more or less wrecked condition rendered them unfit for exhibition. And one reason is no better than the other. If a case of mere forgetfulness, it is unpardonable that men appointed, and paid a large salary, to watch over the country's treasures should not have remembered the existence, and the presence on their premises, of the notable pictures of a distinguished painter. One asks, in consternation, what other fine and beautiful things may be thrust out of sight in the dust and dirt of the National cellars? And I am not sure that it might not be well to carry out in earnest a suggestion lately made in jest, and, once a year, to send the directors of the National, Tate, and Wallace collections on an official round, from the basement to the attic of their galleries, in search of lost, strayed, and forgotten masterpieces. On the other hand, it is incredible that the directors—all, I believe, artists—who have succeeded each other since the Turners were placed under their charge, should have had such a poor opinion of the merit and state of preservation of the paintings in question.

As for the pictures, they speak for themselves. They belong mostly to Turner's later period. I admit the loss would not be very serious if some were to return to the cellars. Several strike me, anyway, as sad proofs of the failing of the artist's powers; the greater number are slight and fragmentary sketches. But still, when a painter is as great as Turner (with all his faults) undeniably was, you may understand him the better sometimes for seeing how he failed. You come into closer sympathy with his methods. You realize the more clearly how he looked at things, how he set about expressing them—in a word, what he was driving at. It is true that the exhibition of studies and projects for pictures by little men who, half the time, have not the strength or knowledge to make anything of the sketch or to paint the projected picture, has been overdone of late years. But Turner was not a little man, and no one with the right feeling for art could object to these paintings, even to the least complete of them, on the score of slightness of treatment. And not only this. Curiously enough, they are in a great deal better condition than many that have been for long hanging in the Turner Room in Trafalgar Square. They are not melancholy wrecks, in which you have to imagine all the wonderful qualities Ruskin discovered in them and commanded the world to see and admire with him. The color is pure and fresh, the sun shines as it rises and sets—it has not been eclipsed by the passing of time—skies and mists are luminous. It may be that Turner's worst experiments with varnish, which these paintings seem to have escaped, were deadlier enemies to his work than the damp and squalor of his forlorn house in Queen Anne Street and the dust and darkness of the National cellars. However that may be, only the blind—or the directors of the National Gallery—could have found in the condition of the long-forgotten series an argument for their concealment.

What Turner was driving at in almost all of them, as a glance will convince you, was the expression of light. This was the problem that haunted him, that took possession of him as time went on. I have never thought he came as near its perfect solution in his later work as in a picture like the beautiful, solemn, serene "Mortlake," or others painted about the same period. No matter how devoutly and untiringly the painter studies this most difficult of all the effects in nature, when it comes to putting it down on canvas, he has necessarily to resort to convention. He cannot get rid of his materials; and there is really a formula, though of so different a kind, in the maddest dots and spots of the Pointillistes as in the restraint of Claude. The more Turner tried to emancipate himself from convention in his attempt to get nearer to nature, the less truthful seem the results he obtained. In almost every picture here, you see him facing the problem with renewed zest; almost every one you can fancy brought to the point where he felt the solution slipping away from him further than ever, and then put aside in despair (though other explanations may have been made of their unfinished state). There are canvases where he treats his subject—the sun shining through the mists on some tranquil lake, the sky aflame at sunset—as in his little water-colors. But what was possible to suggest on a few inches of paper, he could not bring to completion on a huge canvas with the same truth and force and loveliness.

None, however, is a more astonishing revelation of his ends and objects and methods than the "Interior at Petworth." I have found people roaring with laughter before it. I have heard artists raving over it as the most marvellous thing Turner ever did. For the artist catches a glimpse of the vision of light that opened before Turner; the layman sees only the chaos of crimson and scarlet and green that came of his effort to express this vision in paint—the vision of brilliant, transfiguring sunshine streaming through vast windows, into a large, spacious, sumptuously decorated room. Vague forms emerge here and there from the chaotic masses of color: a statue in a corner, a mirror or picture on the wall, a sofa against it. But these things, beautifully indicated as they are, had small value for Turner. The light drenched with color, or the color saturated with light, was all he had eyes for; and so long as there is a painter who wrestles with the same problems of light and color, so long will this "Interior at Petworth" and the series of seas and lakes and mountains be to him studies and experiments of immense interest and fascination, as they were to Turner. And the interest is probably all the greater because they remain in this experimental stage, for it is very doubtful if Turner could have carried them further.

Even the most beautiful of all, some comparatively small sketches of Yacht Racing on the Solent, you feel might have been ruined by another touch. Turner never painted anything more full of light and air and movement, nothing more graceful than the line and swing of the sails, nothing fresher than the wind-swept water. Here, apparently, he left off, not because of any failure to express what he wanted to, but because he had recorded his impression to his own satisfaction. It is curious to contrast these with the much larger, unfinished rendering of the "Thames at Waterloo Bridge," as chaotic a canvas as the "Petworth," with a huge white boat, more suggestive of the Hudson River in the old days than of the Thames, looming dimly through the fog and sending up into the heavy atmosphere a dense cloud of the most wonderfully painted smoke. The picture that comes nearest completion, or rather that is complete, is "The Evening Star," the sea, in the hour before night, under a sky from which the light has all but faded—a most delicately painted sky. There is such an endeavor to render the solemnity and peace of the hour, of the tender color and mysterious light, that I am not surprised to find the critics comparing it to a nocturne by Whistler.

Now it so happens that a nocturne by Whistler is at the present moment hanging in a neighboring room in the same gallery—"Old Battersea Bridge," recently presented to the nation, then hung abominably at the National Gallery, and now removed to the Tate, where it is treated with the consideration and respect it deserves. You leave the Turners, with their splendid, but obvious, struggles and strivings to conquer the secrets of light, and you turn to the quiet little Whistler, supreme in its mastery of these secrets, and with absolutely no trace of labor or of effort. If, in the Turner Room, your interest is in the experiments, in front of the Whistler it is in the perfect achievement of the master. But the presence on the walls of both the experiments and the achievement have given the Tate Gallery an importance it never had before, and no one who cares for art can now afford to come to London without making it a visit. N. N.

SIAM TO-DAY.

RANGOON, January 4, 1906.

Among the political and social questions which agitate the world to-day, there is none of more transcendent importance for the future of mankind than that of the capacity of the Asiatic and African races to work out their own salvation independent of foreign control. The subject has already given birth to much heated controversy, which, moreover, is probably only just beginning. We Americans have to face the matter in the acute domestic form of the negro problem in the South, and especially of the claim of the colored man to the suffrage. The question of the Philippines is fortunately a more external one, yet it is perhaps even more far-reaching in its effects on the principles which have been at the base of our whole theory of government. Great Britain has

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

had to encounter the demands of the new educated generation of her native subjects for a greater participation in the work of shaping the destinies of India, and this agitation looms large for the future. Even in South Africa there are the beginnings of a native movement. France will soon have to meet the same difficulties in Indo-China, Algeria, and elsewhere, while she views with concern the unsatisfactory conditions of her two old possessions, Martinique and Guadeloupe, where the blacks are dominant. In short, all the world-powers to-day are vitally interested in the ability of what we usually term the inferior races to maintain—with foreign advice if need be, but under self-government—the standard of law, order, and civilization requisite according to our modern ideas.

Such being the case, we turn eagerly for guidance to the study of what has been achieved of late years by those Asiatic and African States which have seriously attempted to put new wine into old bottles, and which have been allowed to try the experiment long enough to produce some tangible results. As might be expected, the testimony we get is conflicting, and usually it does not enable us to draw definite conclusions. There are too many elements to be considered. For instance, does the accident that the destinies of a people happened during a critical period to be shaped by a particularly efficient or inefficient despot prove anything as to their own political abilities? Modern Egypt was created by the Albanian adventurer, Mehemet Ali, and wrecked by his grandson, Ismail. Only with the revolt of Arabi do we have anything like a national movement, and that was chiefly a military one. What light do we get from this on the capacity of the Egyptians for self-government or the necessity of British occupation? Many of our other examples aid us but little more. The questions of China and of the Ottoman Empire are too vast, too confused, too complicated by disturbing influences, for us to be able as yet to draw many certain conclusions from them. In Madagascar a promising independent development was nipped in the bud by the French conquest. Korea, after an unsatisfactory but inconclusive experience, has been taken in hand by Japan. Persia is certainly not much of a success so far. Afghanistan and Morocco have hardly started on the road of Western progress. Abyssinia has for some fifteen centuries been a Christian country, though long almost cut off from intercourse with the rest of the Christian world. While this does not determine the racial possibilities of her population, nevertheless her present reawakening may almost be regarded as that of a laggard member of the sisterhood of European communities. The only Oriental non-Christian States which in our day have truly learned for themselves the lesson of European ideas and civilization are Japan and Siam.

At the present moment of their triumph, few critics would be found bold enough to deny that the Japanese have been brilliantly successful in taking over what they desired of Western civilization, in mastering the spirit as well as the letter, and in applying it to their own uses. Their success has, indeed, been so complete that it has not only given a rude shock to the complacent idea of the innate superiority of the white race; it has also inspired with vague alarms many people not otherwise unfriendly to the island empire, and it has, as all admit, introduced into world politics a new factor of the first magnitude. The transformation now going on in Siam has naturally attracted far less attention. It is a movement on a much smaller scale, with incomparably less direct influence on the world at large. Its lasting success, too, has yet to be proved, especially to those who are unacquainted with the country. None the less it is a phenomenon of much interest in itself, and, as another example of Europeanization from within, not from without, it deserves the attention of serious students. The object of this letter is not so much to attempt a sketch of what is being done in Siam to-day, as to call attention to the fact that much is being done.

Unlike Japan, Siam points to no one important date as a landmark in the story of her recent development. She has never systematically shut herself from intercourse with the outside world; therefore, she has needed no Commodore Perry to open her gates for her. Roughly speaking, we may say that her transformation began with the accession of the present king in 1866, though his father, Mongkut, was in many respects a man of liberal views. He even imported for the benefit of his children an English governess, who has written an entertaining account of her experiences at the court of Bangkok. When King Chulalongkorn came to the throne, he found himself at the head of a State, larger, it is true, than almost any European one, but with loosely defined boundaries, extending in theory well beyond the limits of actual Siamese occupation. In the outlying provinces, the authority of the central government was little more than nominal, and in the country as a whole the Siamese proper formed, as they still form, only a minority of the population, being outnumbered by the mass of Malays, Chinese, Cambodians, and tribesmen of various kinds. To-day, Siam finds herself considerably smaller than she was then, thanks to the aggressive policy of the French, which led to the unfortunate and badly-managed dispute of 1893, finally ended to her cost only a few months ago. Even in the territory left to her, she is threatened by the extraordinary Anglo-French Treaty of 1896. Without provocation, Siam was practically divided into three spheres of influence, of which only the central one was assured to her for the future as her own. The way thus seems to be left open for fresh aggression on the part of either of her powerful neighbors, without fear of hindrance from the other provided the aggression is not pushed beyond the prescribed limits. In compensation for this cool way of dealing with her, Siam can at least feel that the independence of the most important third of her territory is guaranteed. She can dispense with any but a small standing army—a large one would be purposeless; all her questions of boundary are definitely settled, and if she steers her course wisely, the influence of Great Britain and France in the spheres claimed by them may never become actual possession. It is an interesting fact in this connection that the nation which now has the largest number of vessels trading with Bangkok and is gaining ground fastest, is Germany.

Within the present borders the Siamese Government has quietly extended its jurisdiction, so the day of semi-independent chiefs in the provinces is about over. The writ of the King may not extend so far as of old, but it is much better obeyed. The Government itself has been pretty thoroughly reorganized on modern lines. To be sure, it may seem amusing to us that almost all the ministers of state are half-brothers of the sovereign, but it should be remembered that this is one of the few possible ways of utilizing any numerous royal family which otherwise tends to be cumbersome, if not worse. Here there is some field for choice, as King Chulalongkorn was one of a family of over eighty children. Accordingly, he has put many of his brothers into important posts where he has known how to utilize their talents, while he has kept them in a very wholesome dread of himself. All things considered, his ministers appear to compare not unfavorably with the average of their colleagues in other lands. Perhaps the ablest of them is Prince Damrongtse, Minister of the Interior and right-hand man of the King. He is exceptionally intelligent and well informed, has travelled much and met many people; he speaks English with perfect ease, and is a man of thoroughly progressive ideas. In the different branches of the administration a number of foreigners are employed, a preference being shown (for obvious reasons) for citizens of states from which there is nothing to be feared, such as Belgium and Denmark. For the last two years the most prominent stranger in the Siamese service has been the Hon. E. H. Strobel, who has been so successful that he has created for himself a unique position in the country. Over and above all stands the King, to whom his people owe a great deal. He is a true ruler of men, tirelessly energetic, seeing into everything, alert, broadminded, and possessed of common-sense. In 1897 he made an extended tour in Europe, and he has profited by what he saw. He knows how to make himself obeyed, and he knows how to take advice.

It is, of course, as impossible for a tourist to appreciate in a few days how much really has or has not been accomplished of late in this country as it would be to describe the results in a few lines. One can only mention a few facts obvious at the first glance or admitted to be beyond dispute. To begin with, Siam to-day is prosperous. This is shown by the increase of her revenues, of her railway receipts, and particularly of her export trade. Taxes are light. A first foreign loan has just been arranged on such favorable terms as to prove that the national credit stands high. There are already several hundred miles of railway, and the only reason why the system is not extended more rapidly is that the Government is unwilling to build on borrowed money or to hand over the work to outside (*i. e.*, foreign) capital. The telegraph and telephone have penetrated into out-of-the-way places. Public order, as far as one can learn, is excellently maintained, and there is reasonable security to life and property, except possibly in some of the remoter

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

districts. A code of law is being prepared which shall reconcile, as well as may be, modern scientific principles and existing national customs. Popular education is chiefly in the hands of the Buddhist clergy, and the knowledge of reading and writing is widespread, even among the lower classes; but in this there is nothing new. What is new is the introduction of Western methods, especially in higher education. There is happily no need for a large army or navy, but the soldiers one does see look pretty shipshape. Bangkok can boast of some interesting buildings (mostly temples), of shops with many kinds of European goods, an electric car service, besides two grades of public carriages, and some well-kept roads patronized by an automobile club, of which the King is an enthusiastic member. Everywhere soldiers, policemen, etc., are in Western dress, but the Siamese men of the upper class have generally adopted a good-looking mixed costume combining the European straw hat or sun hemlet, a white duck jacket, long stockings and low shoes, with the native panung, a strip of cloth, usually of some shade of blue, wound in such a way as to make baggy knickerbockers. Among the women there is still a certain amount of Oriental seclusion, but this appears to be breaking down, and on some occasions one may freely not only see, but meet, Siamese ladies of high rank.

All this makes a pretty creditable showing as the results achieved in little over a generation by a long-stationary Eastern country. The difficulties to overcome have been and still are great, not the least among them being the exterritoriality of resident foreigners, an incubus which the Japanese had such difficulty in getting rid of, and which is a much more serious evil here, where the privileged foreigners include thousands of Asiatics under English and more notably under French protection. Their privileged position continually blocks the paths of justice and improvement. Of course, in Siam, as elsewhere, all is not gold that glitters. There are deficiencies, inconsistencies, and crudities in abundance, but, when all is said and done, the progress made is remarkable. Next only to the Japanese, the Siamese may claim that they have presented the most successful instance in modern times of the independent rebirth of an Oriental people. Whatever conclusions we may draw from the fact, the example is certain to have influence in more than one part of the world.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

MR. REID MISREPORTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with great regret your paragraph, in the issue of March 8, on my utterances or supposed utterances before the Vermont University Alumni. I say with regret, not because I do not agree absolutely and unequivocally with the sentiments which you have expressed therein, but because those sentiments were called forth presumably by the grossly inaccurate statements which the press published in reporting my talk.

I was much disturbed at the reports, at the time, but took no notice of them because, in previously attempting to correct misstatements, I have usually found that matters were not bettered. The facts are that I did not, never have, and never shall pay out one copper cent in the endeavor to secure athletes for Harvard. Such mild ideas as I once had on this subject I have wholly outgrown, and practise here no solicitation nor tolerate such practices in any form whatever. The one thing above all others that I have tried to develop at Harvard is the spirit of fair play and honesty in our contests.

Hoping that this will correct an unfortunate and wholly erroneous impression of our Harvard standards, I beg to remain, very sincerely, W. T. REID, JR.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY FOOTBALL ASSOCIATION, CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 12, 1906.

AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since Esperanto is now discussed so much in this country, will you allow me to call the attention of the readers of the *Nation* to a movement in favor of an international language, but which is absolutely independent of any propaganda for Esperanto?

At the scientific congresses held at Paris in 1900, the serious drawback resulting from the different tongues used by the delegates was more strongly felt than ever before. Moreover, it was evident to all that the evil could only grow worse in time. In view of the increasing number of valuable scientific contributions in Italian, Spanish, Russian, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Dutch, etc., it seemed impossible to limit one's self, as before, to the three languages, English, French, and German; impossible to accept one or two of the above-named languages and leave the others; impossible to recognize them all. The only solution was to try and agree upon an international language, a language which could be used on such occasions as international meetings, and by means of which also written contributions could be put within reach of co-workers who are not familiar with an author's tongue—in fact, nowadays, it is in his daily work especially that the scholar is hampered by the question of language.

Several of the international congresses in Paris decided to appoint at once some of their members to study the question. The delegates, a few months later, organized themselves under the name, "The Delegation for the Adoption of an International Language." Their aim, as expressed in a published "Declaration," is to ascertain (1) whether scholars all over the world will consider with favor the adoption of an I. L.; (2) if so, whether they will not entrust specially qualified persons with the task of selecting the I. L. (The International Association of Academies is proposed.)

The Delegation suggests that none of the national idioms be chosen (art. ii. 3). But the Königliche Akademie der Wissenschaften of Erfurt has asked leave to sign the Declaration without adhering to this special clause, thus leaving the question open altogether. The Delegation has accepted this restriction.

The *Educational Review*, edited by President Butler of Columbia, will publish shortly the text of the Declaration, together with some information as to the interest manifested toward it by European scholars in the three or four last years. Some 200 societies have given their adhesion, and among the personal supporters of the idea are men like Berthelot, the chemist; Liard, Rector of the University of Paris; Sir William Ramsay, Hugo Schuchardt, the linguist. Individual signatures, it must be said, are accepted *only* from university or college professors, and from members of scientific associations of high standing. Between 700 and 800 have already signed. Americans alone have remained utterly indifferent so far. Is it not the duty, as well as the right, of our scholars to discuss the question and to manifest their opinions? A. SCHINZ.

BRYN MAWR, PENNSYLVANIA, March 9, 1906.

P. S.—If more information is desired about the Delegation before the article referred to above is printed in the *Educational Review*, it can be obtained from Prof. Louis Couturat, Collège de France, Paris. The text of the Declaration, with subscription blank attached to it, can be had by addressing the signer of this letter.

LOWELL AND MEREDITH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation's* excellent review of Mr. Greenslet's 'Lowell,' a remark as to the books presented by Lowell to the Harvard Library suggests an added touch in the nature of the fatal *grain de beauté* that completes the picture. On the Harvard shelves may be seen, in the plainest of ugly brown-canvas bindings, a copy of George Meredith's Poems. The title-page discloses three interesting facts: firstly, that it was presented by Meredith to Lowell, as the autograph, "with the author's compliments and respects," attests; secondly, that it was published in 1883; thirdly, that in 1885, not more than two years later, it was presented by Lowell to the Harvard Library. The inferences, if painful, are obvious.

R. M. J.

March 5, 1906.

THE STONE-CUTTER AT WORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I call the attention of philologists to the following mortuary inscription taken from a tombstone in a country graveyard in Michigan, half way between Ann Arbor and the neighboring town of Saline. It is as yet inedited:

JOHN MANN
Died
April 11, 1843
Aged
67 y'rs, 11 M's.
& 1 D'y
A weight a feather a chief a rote
A hornest man
Is the noblest work of God.

PHILOLOGUS.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Notes.

At the request of Prof. Bernhard Seuffert of Graz, Austria, representing the Royal Prussian Academy of Berlin, all institutions or individuals having any manuscripts of Wieland or letters to him are hereby earnestly urged to give notice of the fact, and thus materially further the very elaborate edition of Wieland's complete works, translations, and letters now being prepared by the Academy. A similar appeal is also made in regard to material for the great edition of Goethe proceeding from the Goethe-Schiller-Archiv in Weimar. It may be added, on official authority, that this institution was in no wise affected by the pilferings of the antiquary Bach, of which reports appeared in the American papers some weeks ago. Any information as to the above matters may be sent to Leonard L. Mackall, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, announce a special limited edition of Petrarch's 'Triumphs,' translated by Henry Boyd, and printed at the University Press from Humanistic type expressly made for this publication, together with six plates from ancient Florentine engravings. Other spring issues will be 'The Heart of the Railroad Problem,' by Prof. Frank Parsons; 'Centralization and the Law,' by Melville M. Bigelow, Dean of the Boston University Law School, and others; 'The Fight for Canada,' by Major William Wood; 'Thunder and Lightning,' by Camille Flammarion; and 'Practical Rowing, with Scull and Sweep,' by Arthur W. Stevens.

A Corpus of new Babylonian inscriptions which have been prepared for publication by the Orientalist Stephan Langdon, is soon to be published by the Paris house of Leroux. The first volume is already finished in manuscript, and contains the inscriptions of Kings Nabopolassar and Nebuchadnezzar. The editor has not confined himself to inscriptions which were found on Babylonian soil, but embraces also those which were unearthed elsewhere, *e. g.*, such as were carried by the Kings of Persia to Susa and were recently found there by French savants.

We have received from the Massachusetts Society of *Mayflower* Descendants a sixty-page reprint of Gov. William Bradford's Letter-Book, from the Society's organ. The original MS. of this fragment has been lost, and recourse has been had to the Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society (vol. iii., 1794—a respectable antiquity itself).

There could be no more favorable moment for a reprint of Oscar Wilde's 'Intentions' (Brentano's) than now, when, through his 'De Profundis,' that pathetic voice from the grave, he has made his peace with the world. These four essays, in an attractive edition, do in fact represent Wilde's most permanent contribution to criticism. Fantastic his utterances often are, but they are always shrewd, penetrating, suggestive—if we may be allowed to use a word that has been overworked and ought to be pensioned off. The reader who once, perhaps, read 'Pen, Pencil, and Poison' with an appreciation of its writer's talent that was half reluctant because the callousness of the sentiments expressed repelled his sympathy, should read it again with a greater indulgence and a more generous discount. Wilde's poetry was poor and imitative, but he could, when he chose, write excellent prose—too florid now and then, as he himself was too florid, but rhythmical always without being metrical, as æsthetic prose too often is. In "The Critic as Artist" he is at his best, and for that essay, at any rate, one need demand no indulgence.

To their charming series of books illustrated in color, Messrs. A. & C. Black (Macmillan) have added 'The Homes of Tennyson,' described by A. Paterson and painted by Helen Allingham. Mrs. Allingham's talent for watercolors is well known, and the twenty full-page illustrations in this volume are, we need hardly say, exquisite in every detail. The text of Mr. Paterson merely serves to hold the pictures together, and throws no fresh light on the life and character of Tennyson. The poet's homes, Farringford in the Isle of Wight and the more stately Aldworth, which he built under the lee of the moor of Blackdown, as a hiding-place from the tourists of Farringford, are still maintained as seats of the Tennyson family, escaping, so far, the fate of becoming museums. Tennyson, long before Mr. Kipling, sang of the fascination of "Sussex by the Sea"—

> "Green Sussex, fading into blue
> With one grey glimpse of sea"

—but Farringford, which he bought with the proceeds of 'Maud,' is thickest with memories of his best years. There, on his favorite down, was erected by English and Americans the great stone cross which serves as a beacon to mariners who must encounter the dangers of the Needles. Mr. Paterson's share in this book, whose value is quite unaffected by his defects—sentimentality and exaggerated adoration of Tennyson—would call for no remark had he not loaded his pages with a construction that must give pain to the sensitive reader. This is the "hanging nominative," of which even the best writer may once in a great while be guilty—we met it the other day in the works of the late Canon Ainger, himself a purist of the first water; but with Mr. Paterson it has become a habit. "Passing from right to left on the ground floor at the extreme right is one of the dining-room windows" (p. 60), is a good instance of the absurdity that may result from this sort of error. Mrs. Allingham has prefaced each one of her illustrations, which are excellently reproduced, with a few words of explanation that she always contrives to make interesting.

In 'The Way of an Indian' (Fox, Duffield & Co.), Frederic Remington has told a very effective story of the tragic clash of the Indians of the Northwest with the resistless onward movement of the white man. The career of White Otter, a Cheyenne boy, is traced from his first taste of the life of the warrior, through successful exploits against Indian foes or straggling parties of trappers and traders, down to the evil days when his bat-skin "medicine" weakens against the more potent spells of the ever rising stream of "Yellow-eyes" pouring into the plains each spring and summer from the inexhaustible caves of the East, even as the buffaloes had been wont to pour up from the mysterious caves of the South. At last, overtaken in the mountain fastnesses to which his people had been driven in search of safety, the lodges destroyed by the flames, his young squaw dropping in the snow behind him at the touch of a deadly bullet, the spirit of his little boy filched away by the icy wind upon the bleak crags even as he held him tight in his arms, he sits down with the little frozen form across his knees and waits for the evil spirits to come from among the pine trees and take him, hoping that in the spirit-land he may find again the Cheyennes of his home and youth, walking and talking together at peace, in warm valleys. Fifteen of Mr. Remington's pictures illustrate the book, two of which are reproduced in color.

'Studies in Roman History,' by E. G. Hardy (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan), is a new edition of the author's well-known work on 'Christianity and the Roman Government,' supplemented by half a dozen other essays, two of which originally appeared in the *English Historical Review*, three in the *Journal of Philology*, and one as part of an introduction to an edition of Plutarch's 'Lives of Galba and Otho.' To readers who are already acquainted with Mr. Hardy's careful and capable work, the information, conveyed in the preface, that loss of eyesight has closed to him all avenues of further research except such as he may follow by the aid of the eyes of others, will bring a feeling of the deepest regret and heartfelt sympathy. For this reason the studies here republished appear practically in their original form, although the author would have wished to subject them to a thorough revision. We do not see why the supplementary essays should have been numbered consecutively with the chapters of the work on 'Christianity and the Roman Government,' as the unity of that work is thus sacrificed to the eye with no apparent gain.

The February number of the *Library Journal* contains a paper of no little interest and suggestiveness concerning the operations of the Washington County Free Library, Hagerstown, Md., by the librarian, Mary L. Titcomb. The core of the matter consists in the methods of reaching the outlying districts, and prominent among these is the Book Wagon, of which an illustration is given. From Miss Titcomb's fourth annual report it appears that "fiction is much less in demand in the country than in the city," that "the demand for the 'best seller' is unknown, and the librarian finds that the books of greatest permanent value which the wagon takes out are almost never brought back at the end of the day's work." The community which thus reaches out to the light is Southern, but not typically so, having a large proportion of inhabitants of Pennsylvania Dutch or German descent; Dunkards and Mennonites being very numerous. Since the war, Hagerstown, by the springing up of manufactures, has become the third city in Maryland.

Mr. Charles F. Lummis's first annual report of the Los Angeles Public Library since he took direction of it, is as unconventional as was to be expected. His directors have not been dazed by his proposed innovations, but have cordially seconded them. He has adopted the system of inserting in the volumes themselves "the judicial estimate of experts"

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

derived from leading English and American reviews. He has instituted a department of Western History Material made up of clippings from local newspapers, "condensed, classified into books, and indexed." Works in early American history, especially of the Pacific Slope, have been doubled in the past year. 'A Dictionary of Western Place-Names' is to be prepared under the auspices of the Library. Every city architect and contractor is to be furnished with lists of the Library's collection of architectural photographs. Mr. Lummis renounces the Librarians' "catalog" and other deformations; and he will modify to his needs the Dewey system of classification already established.

The Deutsche Dichter-Gedächtnis-Stiftung of Hamburg-Grossborstel, an organization recently established for the purpose of supplying the smaller libraries of the country with the best literary works in larger numbers and in good bindings, reports that in the first year of its activity it distributed among 485 public but poorly equipped libraries 18,063 volumes. These libraries are found not only in all parts of the Empire, but also in the "German Dispersion" in Russia, South America, and elsewhere. Applications for the second year have already been received to the extent of more than thirty thousand volumes. The literary and moral quality of what is sent out is carefully controlled.

In several respects the statistics of the twenty-one German universities for the present winter semester are noteworthy. The total attendance is now 47,035, by a considerable margin the greatest in the history of these institutions. The relative increase, too, as compared with the enrolment of the preceding half year, is the largest ever known, the matriculated student body having grown from 39,719 to 42,390. The woman contingent has also reached its high-water mark (1,907), of whom only 138 are matriculated and consequently candidates for examination and degree. Hence 1,769 are "Hörerinnen," a respectable figure as compared with 2,876 "Hörer." The general lesson of the new statistics seems to be that the larger universities are becoming larger and the smaller smaller. It seems not impossible that in course of time Berlin will have that preëminence in the German educational world that Paris has in France. The foreign contingent is also the greatest ever reported, being 3,555, or 8.4 per cent., as compared with 7.8 per cent. in the preceding semester. In this element the Russians occupy the front rank with 1,326, while 309 are Americans, nearly all from the United States.

—To the forthcoming Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society Mr. Charles Francis Adams contributes a paper of no little curiosity and significance. It relates to his illustrious grandfather at the beginning of his career in the lower House of Congress, which was to overshadow his Presidential administration. The materials are J. Q. Adams's letters to his family, and the rough notes which he never found time to transcribe in his Diary, thus causing a regrettable lacuna (March 23-December 1, 1832). Andrew Stevenson of Virginia, Speaker of the House, between the compulsion of a decent respect for the ex-President and a Southern dread of him in the place where he eminently belonged (Foreign Affairs), ended by making him chairman of the Committee on Manufacturers, much to the veteran statesman's dismay, who had never so much as mentioned the tariff in any of his messages to Congress. His grit, however, was equal to the occasion, and he presently found himself committed to a reduction of duties contingent upon the proximate extinguishment of the national debt. This brought him into direct conflict with Henry Clay, and such was the hubbub within and without (it was the era of Nullification) that Adams foresaw an end of the Union in five years—in twenty at most. Nevertheless, the compromise bill introduced by his committee passed both House and Senate by large majorities, but was promptly declared null and void by South Carolina.

—The report, from Mr. Adams's pen, accompanying the bill stimulated Speaker Stevenson to break the force of its argument in behalf of internal improvements by publishing a private letter only two years old from ex-President Madison to the contrary. To this, Mr. Adams replied in a long letter to the *National Intelligencer*, which now forms a part of Mr. C. F. Adams's paper, and was eminently worthy to be brought to light. Meanwhile the old man eloquent had successfully resisted a move to censure him for refusing to vote on a resolution censuring another—the first of his brilliant triumphs in this line. The report, to return to it for a moment, was remarkable for meeting the current threats of dissolving the Union by asking, What would be the necessary consequence? and answering War, and suggesting, in the circumlocution of the time, "to those who deny the power of this confederated government to protect by the energy and resources of the whole nation a great and comprehensive but not universal interest [manufactures], that there is an interest [slavery] most deeply their own, protected by the Constitution and laws of the United States, and effectively protected by these alone." Let statesmen North and South consider "the condition in which that great interest would be found immediately after the separation should have been consummated." The letter to Stevenson is largely an acute discussion of the Constitutional authority "to provide for the common defence and general welfare," but it also most interestingly reviews the Louisiana purchase, which Mr. Adams approved under the above sanction, while opposing the bill enabling the President to take possession of and temporarily govern the newly acquired Territories. He believed a vote of the people of Louisiana necessary to effect annexation, together with an amendment to the Constitution. When he saw the other course condoned by the Louisianians and the American people, he regarded the Constitution as *de facto* amended, and the subsequent Florida purchase and annexation he even furthered. The protection of American industry had now one Constitutional argument the more. Congress had assumed, by loose construction, the "power of investing the President of the United States with all the despotic authority of the King of Spain," together with "the power of absolute legislation over a foreign nation, of holding in subjection a foreign people, taxing them without their consent, and fettering them into freedom"—how vivid a picture of what was repeated in the case of the Philippines! But Mr. Adams could not "allow that Mr. Jefferson, as President of the United States, but at the same time a citizen of a Southern slaveholding State," should adopt a broad and liberal construction for "one set of measures transcendently advantageous to the Southern and slaveholding interest, and then to retreat upon a narrow and niggardly construction of the same terms" to deny Congressional protection of Northern manufactures from foreign rivalry and competition.

—The Rev. Father Algué, S. J., Director of the Philippine Weather Bureau for many years, has just issued his report for January from the Central Manila Observatory. Although this month occurs in the dry season, so that little rain is expected, the unusual decrease in the rainfall this year is remarkable, placing the month among the lowest on record. For the first time since 1865, or as far back as the records of the Observatory go, Manila had no rain whatever. Samar and eastern Mindanao had a fairly good rainfall for January, as shown by the table of differences; also, southeastern Luzon and the Batanes Islands northward. The monsoon was much stronger than customary on the high seas and in the San Bernadino Strait; and the account of her experiences with winds and currents of the disabled steamer *Carlisle* makes interesting meteorological reading. In so dry a month generally the conditions were naturally not of the best for agriculture, and the drought was especially felt in the eastern portions of the islands, whose products require more water. Despite lack of rain, the mornings were very humid, and in Basilan plants were kept alive by the abundant dew. The scarcity of carabaos, however, is quite as much a menace to agriculture as drought, and a majority of towns sending reports to the Central Observatory note this lack. Injurious animals and insects seem to be few, except a moth (*Calogramma festiva*), whose larva works great destruction among all classes of liliaceous plants. Earthquakes of moderate intensity occurred in various regions on a number of days, and the Vicentini microseismograph of the Observatory recorded on the 22d important disturbances. On the 27th an earthquake of small force but long duration was felt in all the central provinces of Luzon, whose centre must have been in the western part of the island, near the Zambales range. Its characteristics furnish good confirmation of the two different types of seismic movements sometimes felt at Manila, and which seem to have some connection with volcanic centres around the active volcano Taal. Along the Zambales and Mariveles ranges a secondary centre seems to exist, one of the least dangerous for the capital.

—A successful preliminary expedition was undertaken last summer by Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch of Blue Hill Observatory, and M. L. Teisserenc de Bort, for exploring by kites the atmosphere over tropical oceans. Using the *Otaria* (a steamer equipped with an electric kite-reel) as a base, wind direction, drift of cloud, and other phenomena were studied, not only over the open sea, but above Teneriffe, at Madeira, and the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Cape Verde Islands, with particular reference to trade winds. The results point emphatically to the fact that winds blowing equatorward vary in direction between northeast and northwest. These last, generally above the northeast stratum, have a thickness from three to five thousand metres. The "anti-trades," so called, were found to be much higher, above the Cape Verde Islands being observed by a balloon at not less than 6.8 miles altitude. Their direction is southeast, south, and southwest; currents of great thickness but small density. High altitude observations at Havana and in the Antilles offer still further proof of the existence of these winds, which had been denied by Dr. Hergesell; and one of the important results of this expedition is to have confirmed the accepted view of trade winds and the long-suspected anti-trades.

—From Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia, we have a slender volume of essays, on 'Quakerism and Politics,' by President Isaac Sharpless, of Haverford College. One of these essays, dealing with the ills of Pennsylvania, appeared in the *Atlantic* four years ago, as a protest against an anonymous attribution of Pennsylvania's notorious latter-day corruption to the non-militant habit of mind engendered during the period of Quaker ascendency. Of course, Dr. Sharpless had no difficulty in refuting that charge, though, if the assailant had chosen to indict the Quakerism of his own time for failing to bear adequate testimony against existing evils, the answer would have been less obvious. The preface bears a note of pleasure that, in the recent uprising, the Friends have been represented far beyond their proportionate numbers; but doubtless he would have been happier had the name of no prominent family of Friends been identified with the side of the machine. We imagine that some changes might have been made in the book had it not gone to press before the Philadelphia revolt had taken shape and won some of its successes. Perhaps Dr. Sharpless is not quite so sure to-day that the political machine is simply the answer to the demand of the age for efficiency, and a creation against which it is idle to protest. Efficiency as an implement of "graft" and self-seeking it undoubtedly possesses; as an implement of the legitimate ends of Government, it is the greatest foe to efficiency ever encountered. In a chapter written in 1904, the author describes the condition of Pennsylvania politics as being such that one party "can elect almost any reasonably reputable man by presenting him to the public." To most observant outsiders, it would have seemed nearer the truth to say that the Republican machine at that date could elect any *un*reasonably *dis*reputable man. We shall not quarrel, however, with a book which in general gives wholesome and needful counsel to Pennsylvania Quakerism as to its political duties and responsibilities.

—Collections of Greek inscriptions until a quarter of a century ago were published in ponderous folios, with commentaries intended only for those who had been initiated in the innermost mysteries of Greek scholarship. They were not for the use of the ordinary student of the classics, and indeed thirty years ago probably not a score of copies of the old 'Corpus Inscriptionum Græcarum' existed in this country. Of late years German, French, and Belgian scholars have published admirable collections of these inscriptions in convenient form, but either with no commentary at all or with rather technical notes. An excellent volume of Greek historical inscriptions, with English introductions, has reached a second edition, but seems to be intended for the use of scholars, or at least of those who have scholars as teachers. A recent volume, however, 'Attic Inscriptions' (the second volume of Roberts's 'Greek Epigraphy,' Macmillan); edited by E. S. Roberts, Master of Caius College, Cambridge, and Ernest A. Gardner, Professor at University College, London, gives more than four hundred inscriptions, dating from the sixth century B. C. to the fourth or fifth century of our era—Decrees of the Senate and People, of Foreign States, Tribes, Demes, etc., Imperial Ordinances, Documents pertaining to finance and to ritual, Dedications of statues, Inscriptions on the seats of the Theatre of Dionysus, Sepulchral inscriptions, etc. The commentary is concise and never trivial, but it gives all necessary information in regard to technical phrases and unusual words and constructions, as well as regards matters of history and antiquities. Every teacher of Greek ought to have some knowledge of these original documents. Even the classical teachers in high schools may find such a book more helpful and stimulating for their private study than anything but the works of Homer and Xenophon. That all teachers of ancient history should read these documents is earnestly to be desired.

THE LIFE OF LORD GRANVILLE.

The Life of Granville George Leveson-Gower, Second Earl Granville, K. G. By Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice. With Portraits. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

During more than forty years Lord Granville stood in the front rank of English public men, filling one after another of the chief offices of state, and exerting behind the scenes an influence which many holders of great offices never obtain. Connected by family ties with several of the great Whig houses—houses which determined the course of events in England far more in those days than they do now—he was peculiarly well placed for adjusting differences and arranging combinations. Once, in 1859, he was commissioned by Queen Victoria to form an administration, and might, but for the refusal of Lord Palmerston to be subordinated to Lord John Russell and the refusal of Lord John Russell to be subordinated to Lord Palmerston, have then become Prime Minister. The life of such a statesman well deserved to be written; and Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice is in many respects excellently qualified to write it. Lord Edmond belongs by birth to one of the Whig families to which we have referred. He has had a long experience of English political life. He is not new to literature, having produced a valuable life of his ancestor, Lord Shelburne, the contemporary of Charles James Fox. And he has the special advantage of having known Lord Granville thoroughly, for he served under the latter for three years as Under Secretary, when Lord Granville was Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in Mr. Gladstone's second Administration.

The biographer has done his work well. One difficulty which confronts every one who undertakes a political biography, an obvious and insuperable difficulty, has indeed not been overcome. It is the difficulty of relating a statesman's part in public affairs without being led on to write the whole history of the time; it is also the difficulty of making the general course of events intelligible if one deals with them only when the subject of the biography is a conspicuous actor. But although Lord Edmond's narrative cannot in parts be easily followed without going to a general history for some account of events which he could not undertake to set forth—else the biography would have grown into a history—still, he has shown much judgment in concentrating attention upon the really important periods in Lord Granville's career, and in treating these fully enough to make their significance intelligible to persons not familiar with the details of English affairs from 1841 to 1890. He writes as one who "knows the ropes" of English parliamentary life, yet he does not dilate too fully upon those details of parliamentary conflicts or intrigues which are thought so supremely important at the moment, and become so dreary when a few years have passed. He comprehends, as an ex-Under Foreign Secretary ought to do, the politics of continental Europe, though he never goes out of his way to display his knowledge. In speaking of Lord Granville himself, he does not carry that appreciation which befits a biographer into fulsome praise. Indeed, we find few judgments passed on the conduct of his hero, and could have desired to see a somewhat fuller estimate of the strength and weakness of one who figured so largely in the eyes of his contemporaries, and belonged to a type which seems to be disappearing from English politics.

Born in 1815, the year of Waterloo, Granville George Leveson-Gower was elected to the House of Commons as member for Morpeth in 1837. He had every advantage that a youth entering political life could desire, both from his connection with several of the leading noble families and as the son of an able and popular ambassador on whom an earldom had lately been bestowed. Society in London and Paris opened its arms to him, and his manner no less than his talents made him a favorite in society. He had been only a few months in Parliament when he was appointed Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Lord Palmerston being then Foreign Minister. Not long afterwards he married a German lady, daughter of the last of the male line of the great house of Dalberg, and widow of Sir Richard Acton. She had one child, and that child became Lord Acton, whose fame as a man of learning may last as long as Lord Granville's fame as a politician. Those who know Lord Acton's writings will be interested by a letter (p. 358 of vol. i.) in which Lord Granville gives a glimpse of his stepson in early manhood.

After six years spent in the House of Commons, where he had proved to be a capable and popular member, Lord Leveson (as he then was) passed by his father's death to the House of Lords as Earl Granville. He had sat there only five years when Lord John Russell, then Prime Minis-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ter, got rid of Lord Palmerston and installed Lord Granville as Foreign Secretary. This was in 1851, Lord Granville being only thirty-six years of age; and from this time onwards he sat in every Liberal Cabinet, and continued to be regarded as a man available for any office which a peer can hold. In Lord Aberdeen's Administration of 1852 he was Lord President of the Council and afterwards Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster; in Lord Palmerston's Administration of 1855, again Lord President. Later in his career he was again Foreign Secretary in Mr. Gladstone's first and second Administrations (1868 to 1874 and 1880 to 1885), and Colonial Secretary for two years in Mr. Gladstone's first and for six months in Mr. Gladstone's third and shortest (February to July, 1886). From 1855 till his death in 1891 he led the Liberal party in the House of Lords, except for the years 1865 to 1868, when Lord Russell, who had become Prime Minister at the end of 1865, filled that position. Thus he was always in the very centre, the midmost whirlpool, of English politics. Yet he was never, except when in 1859 he tried to form a ministry, himself a star of the first magnitude, because during the earlier part of his career he was overshadowed by Lord John Russell and Lord Palmerston, during the later part by Mr. Gladstone.

At one moment he was placed in a position of peculiar delicacy, which is worth mentioning, because the circumstances throw a ray of light into one of the dark chambers of the British Constitution. When Lord Palmerston formed an administration in 1859, the war between France and Austria was still going on, though her defeat at Solferino had disposed Austria to peace. The Queen found her views regarding Italian affairs at variance with those of Lord Palmerston, the Prime Minister, and Lord John, the Foreign Secretary. She distrusted the former, with whom she had had many passages of arms in former days, and she never liked the latter; but she both liked and trusted Lord Granville. Accordingly, she took the most unusual step of writing through the Prince Consort to Lord Granville, asking him to tell her what passed at the Cabinet. Lord Granville felt the extreme delicacy of the position, and decorously replied that it was difficult for him to comply with the Queen's request without the knowledge of the two ministers to whom constitutional usage would have required the Crown to express its wishes. However, he did relate, in profound confidence, what had taken place; the secret was kept, and no one seems to have ever heard of the incident till the letters were published in these volumes (vol. i., pp. 349-352).

When Mr. Gladstone succeeded Lord Russell as leader of the Liberal party, Lord Granville became his most uniformly trusted adviser. He had some of the qualities which the more famous and brilliant chief lacked. His judgment was less disturbed by feeling. He was perhaps a better judge of men's characters, and certainly more tactful in dealing with them. He was a stanch Liberal, but he excited less antagonism among opponents. Through Mr. Gladstone's two first Ministries (1868-1874 and 1880-1885) Lord Granville was as important a force in the Cabinet as he was conspicuous to the public from his adroit leadership in the House of Lords, where he found himself confronted by a large and constantly increasing Tory majority. When the Ministry of 1868 was formed, he had taken the Colonial Office, but on Lord Clarendon's death he was transferred to the Foreign Office (early in July, 1870) just before the breaking out of the great war between France and Germany. His conduct of the foreign relations of Britain was firm and tactful; and it was amid expressions of general confidence that he returned to the same post in Mr. Gladstone's Administration of 1880. But times had changed, and he had perhaps himself changed. He was older, and possibly less vigilant. He had a difficult Cabinet to deal with, in which there were frequent differences of opinion, constantly threatening resignations which he, as the peacemaker in ordinary, was called upon to avert. And he had a formidable opponent to reckon with in Bismarck, then at the height of his power, and spurred by the rising Colonial party in Germany into controversies with England. It was not chiefly Lord Granville's fault that, both in Egypt and in other parts of Africa, British foreign policy seemed more than once to be wavering, and once, at least, to have been palpably unsuccessful. But it was on him and on Mr. Gladstone, also almost entirely free from blame, that the discredit chiefly fell. Accordingly, it caused no surprise when, on the formation of another Liberal Administration in 1886, Mr. Gladstone allotted to Lord Granville the Colonial Office, giving the Foreign Office to a younger statesman. Lord Granville took the change with admirable temper, and remained in a no less cordial friendship than before with the oldest of his political friends. Soon afterwards his strength began to fail, and he died in 1891.

A great foreign minister he can hardly be called, because there was no single great stroke of policy attributable to him, nor did he ever mark out for the nation and for his successors any broad, strong line such as only men of profound reflection and comprehensive grasp of facts can contrive or execute. But he was adroit and tactful, specially successful where it was necessary to understand the characters and humor the foibles of individual men, and with a happy gift of saying disagreeable things in an agreeable way. It was this talent for dealing with men that made him so admirable a composer of differences between colleagues in a cabinet. Among the lessons which these two volumes enforce, there is one which, however obvious to students of the minuter details of political machinery, is apt to be forgotten by nine-tenths of those who, in reading the history of free countries like the United States and England, assume that where the will of the people is sovereign, and has full constitutional means provided to enable it to assert its authority, the characters of individuals and their personal relations become matters of small consequence. Here we see, all through Lord Granville's career, how much the march of events even in great matters—in the relations, for instance, of England, France, Germany, Austria, and Russia, in the adoption, the advocacy, the temporary failure of the policy of Home Rule for Ireland—was affected not merely by the idiosyncrasies of such men as Lord Palmerston, Lord Russell, and Mr. Gladstone himself, but by the way in which their mental peculiarities and ways of acting and speaking told upon each of the others. The same lesson might be drawn from American history in several critical epochs, such as that in which Jefferson, John Adams, and Alexander Hamilton were brought into contact with one another and with Washington.

Lord Granville was never what is called a powerful speaker. He once referred, in a characteristic phrase, to his own "slipshod oratory." He had neither the imagination nor the fire and passion needed for rising to the heights of real eloquence. But he was a dangerous antagonist in debate, for he had the art of finding out the weak points in his opponent's case; and his ready wit gave point to a retort. His mind, if not large and philosophical, was eminently reasonable and enlightened, as was proved by the educational policy which he followed when, as President of the Council, he had to hold the balance between the Church of England on the one side and the Nonconformists on the other. It was this vein of common sense, not going far beyond the average views of the average intelligent man, which won for him much of the confidence he inspired. His humor also contributed to his popularity. When Mr. Lowell lived in London as Minister from the United States, he and Lord Granville divided with one another the reputation of being the best after-dinner speaker that used the English tongue. There are many happy dicta, as well as many good stories, scattered through these volumes; but they would suffer by being detached from their context, so it is enough to say that American readers will find amusement as well instruction in this excellent biography.

LOWERY'S SPANISH SETTLEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Spanish Settlements in the United States. By Woodbury Lowery. Putnams. 1905.

We shall begin by pointing out one of the few inconsiderable mistakes on which we might dwell, before proceeding to speak freely of Mr. Lowery's work, which is excellent and of great intrinsic value: On page 15 (note 1), the author states: "A ladino was a slave who had served over one year." The term "ladino" is nearly synonymous with "latino," and is accepted as such by the compilers of the older Spanish dictionaries, for instance, Covarrubias Orozco (1673, fol. 82). While, in Spain, the word applied to any foreigner (whether Christian, Moor or heathen) who acquired the use of the Spanish language with considerable perfection, in Spanish America "ladino" was and is used to designate chiefly those Indians who speak Spanish with approximate fluency. The word stood and stands in no direct relation whatever to the *social position* of the individual. As soon as he spoke the language of Spain with sufficient ease, any one, whether European, negro, or Indian, freeman or slave (provided Spanish was not his *native tongue*), was regarded as "ladino." When Menéndez wrote to the King concerning the negroes in the city of Santo Domingo, "most of whom are ladinos"—he meant that they spoke a rather fair Spanish. That they were "natives of the land" does not prove that they were born in the *language* of Spain, as the element of their native

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

African idioms still prevailed among them. We will only observe further that the quality of the index is hardly in keeping with that of the text.

Mr. Lowery has taken up his task, not only in a most dignified manner, but also with a thoroughly practical sense and with full conscientiousness of his obligation to be impartial. Even where his always well-fortified conclusions are at variance with those of his predecessors, they are presented in an impersonal manner. There is no "I believe it to be so, and it is very probably so." Our author quietly gives positive data, leaving in doubt what he cannot prove in an irrefutable manner, and courteously tolerating every dissenting opinion. He is absolutely free from pedantry, as well as from imaginative rashness. Some of his predecessors (Parkman, for instance) foreshadowed all this, but in their time access was lacking to the sources of information, the number and variety of which Mr. Lowery now places before us. The same may be said in regard to their partisanship. Could they have known more, their works, at least the works of some of them, would have shown a different spirit, for most of them were honest, sincere, and painstaking men, imbued with a desire to do historical justice. This is manifestly the way in which Mr. Lowery looks at their productions.

Spanish achievements in the New World called forth the envy and jealousy of every other nation pretending to or wishing for marine and commercial standing, which was thought to be most easily obtainable by colonization. American possessions were the dream of Portugal, France, and (though not so openly acknowledged then) of England also. The turbulent state of Europe in the beginning of the sixteenth century gave at first a legitimate pretext for encroaching upon Spanish possessions in America by open warfare; but, after peaceful relations had been established with Spain, hostilities continued to be carried on, in spite of treaties, against her commerce and her colonies. It was no longer warfare, but piracy—murder and robbery on the high sea, sacking and devastation on shore; perpetrated by individuals ostensibly disavowed, but secretly abetted, by their respective governments, in spite of truce or peace. Therefore Spain had, almost from the time of Columbus on, no peace in regard to her Western possessions. She had by night and by day to be constantly on the defensive and armed watch, whether at war or not. During the period encompassed by Mr. Lowery's investigations, France was the Power that most annoyed Spain in the manner above described. Portugal was on the decline, and England just beginning to enter the lists. It is characteristic of the latter nation that when Philip II., through his Ambassador in England, informed Queen Elizabeth of the extermination of the French colony in Florida, the Queen "expressed much pleasure at Philip's success," while at the same time English vessels and squadrons were preying openly upon Spanish fleets and Spanish ports, sometimes resorting to unspeakable cruelties. France, we repeat, in closer touch with Spain than England, was *the* nation that, in spite of treaties and diplomatic representations, persisted in harassing Spanish commerce and settlements in the most unwarrantable manner. The chief promoter of this "policy" was the Admiral of France, the famous Coligny, who, in perfect accord with the dowager Queen Catherine, fostered every enterprise destined to damage Spain in time of peace. Mr. Lowery goes into most interesting details concerning the transactions between the two governments about the question of the Indies. If we review the diplomatic history of the period as presented in this work with an abundance of testimony, we arrive at the conclusion that the only monarch who behaved logically and with dignity in these matters was Philip the Second of Spain.

Spain forbore greatly. She protested without result; the piratical attempts against her legitimate commerce with the colonies she had founded, continued unbated. Since the governments of other nations would not heed protests, but persisted in giving covert assurance to those who destroyed her fleets, sacked her ports in America, threw into the sea the crews of captured Spanish vessels, and committed untold atrocities wherever and whenever it became possible, Spain had to resort to stringent measures for the protection of her people and interests. Retaliation was not mild, of course, but not worse than the deeds of those who provoked it. The discussion of these features is conducted by the author in the most impartial manner. He fixes the blame irrespective of creed or nationality, and always endeavors to palliate, in a legitimate degree, the faults he discoverers. The picture he is compelled to draw of the intrigues going on, especially from the side of France, is a sinister one.

The conception has prevailed since the sixteenth century that the main incentive to the hostilities which the naval Powers of Europe carried on against Spain in the sixteenth century was the defence of religious liberty. Mr. Lowery tests this by his description of the three successive attempts of the French to become masters of the Florida coast and territory. Had the real object been the establishment of a Protestant community (after the manner of New England), it is scarcely probable that Catherine de Médicis would have countenanced these efforts to the extent she did, concealing the movements as carefully as possible from the Spanish Government. Neither would Catholics have been permitted to join the expeditions in any number; still less would Catholic officers have been placed in command—as, for instance, De Gourgues, who, according to the testimony, was of a Catholic family and, in all probability, a Catholic himself. These expeditions had in view the seizure of territory to which Spain held the first claim, which it had never abandoned. By occupying Florida, the French became a constant menace to the Spanish West Indies and a danger to the Spanish treasure fleets. While it is true that Spain, discouraged by repeated failures, had resolved to discontinue her efforts to colonize Florida for the moment, the fact of her having taken possession repeatedly and explored the country far inland, at various times, gave at least as much of a claim to right of possession as in the case of islands on which the English flag had been once raised, then the islands forgotten until some other nation's ships discovered them anew, when England (if the island was worth holding) would assert a right of priority. Spain had spent untold sums for and in Florida, and many lives, long previous to any French attempt. The French settlements were, therefore, justly looked upon by Philip the Second as intrusive, while at the same time they were dangerous to Spanish intercourse with the American colonies.

At this stage the central figure of the tale appears upon the scene. Pedro Menéndez de Avilés has for several centuries passed in history as a pirate against pirates, a remorseless butcher prompted to cruelty by religious zeal. Far different is the picture of him by Mr. Lowery. Menéndez appears as a man of much importance, a faithful and enthusiastic servant of his King and of his country's interests. Like other men of his stripe in other but similar enterprises, he clung to his ideas with the utmost tenacity. These ideas were, of course, largely those of his King, and in his unflinching devotion to what he regarded as the cause of colonization of the Florida peninsula he was disinterested, as the sequel proved after his death. The author of the book represents him to have been, from undeniable testimony, a man of great courage, an experienced mariner, and a colonizer of practical merits. He was a Catholic, but the great flaw in his career, that of the massacre of French prisoners, had nothing to do with his personal creed. The alleged inscription placed above their corpses, which has found credit for more than three centuries, rests, according to Mr. Lowery, on such slender testimony that it becomes more than problematical, as well as the counter-label attributed to De Gourgues.

In the course of the history of colonization, Mr. Lowery naturally touches upon the question of the Catholic missions in Florida. Most of these, during the period he deals with, terminated in martyrdom. He pays a well-merited tribute of respect to the efforts of both Dominicans and Jesuits, dwelling with greater detail upon the labors of the latter. Their education fitted them better for work among the Indians than the former, who, not in vain, wore the title of "Order of Predicants." The Jesuits also had their weak points in their intercourse with the aborigines, which the author acknowledges very frankly. The last mission Mr. Lowery touches upon is the one to Virginia in 1570, and it ended in the murder of the Jesuits who attempted it. The effort of Avilés to avenge their death was but partially successful. What the author says of the Indians rests on sound ethnological understanding. He not only describes them from good sources, ancient as well as modern, but reduces the data obtained to a fair average. He has succeeded in penetrating the nature of the aborigines to a degree highly creditable to his capacity for just criticism.

The few maps are interesting, and the portrait of Avilés a welcome addition to reproductions of early portraiture. A voluminous appendix, exceedingly important for the many difficult historical and geographical problems treated, completes the documentary material contained in the numerous footnotes. They bear witness to the conscientious manner in which Mr. Lowery has undertaken and carried out his task.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

WHITNEY'S ATHARVA-VEDA COMPLETED.

Atharva-Veda Samhita. Translated, with a critical and exegetical commentary, by William Dwight Whitney, Late Professor of Sanskrit in Yale University. Revised and brought nearer to completion and edited by Charles Rockwell Lanman. (Harvard Oriental Series, Vols. vii., viii.). Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University. 1905.

When Titian died, one of his pupils, as the story goes, finished a picture left incomplete by the master and added the legend: "Titian painted it, reverently his pupil has attempted to complete it, for the glory of God." The same reverence, and almost the same piety, attach to the attempt on the part of any pupil to carry to completion a masterpiece begun but not quite finished by the master. It is now more than a decade since Whitney's translation of one of the ancient Vedic Collections passed at his death into the hands of his former pupil, Professor Lanman, for completion and publication. It is a long time to wait for the appearance of a posthumous work. Especially is the delay fraught with danger in the case of a scientific publication, since, as in this case, in any one of the dozen years during which the manuscript remains in the editor's hands another scholar may bring out a volume that, seriously if not entirely, impairs the value of the buried treasure. That nothing of the sort has happened in the case of Whitney's translation is, one is tempted to say, an undeserved good fortune for the editor. But it was probably just this possible contingency, together with an intimate knowledge of what was doing in the little world of Sanskrit scholarship, which induced the pupil to complete, or try to complete, as he modestly puts it, the master's work on other lines than those which a more hasty and less diligent editor might have elected to pursue. Two courses were open to him: either to publish the translation at once, annotated as Whitney left it, without thorough revision, or to wait and elaborate, and in so doing to convert this tentative translation into a perpetual monument, by building under it a massive pedestal, making of the whole a permanent scientific edifice, the value of which no subsequent erection could cause to depreciate. The editor chose the latter course, and, as we think, chose wisely. The result is that in the two volumes now before us we have a lasting memorial. No translation can be definitive, but it can be made a necessary point of departure for future scholars; and to transform a partially complete work into one complete in all details, to bring it up to date in each particular, is to render it indispensable for all who afterwards labor in the same field.

In electing this method of completing and complementing the translation left by Whitney, Mr. Lanman has necessarily put much more of his own time and toil into the pious work than if he had chosen the easier course—more of himself in every way—so that, as the sacrifice was not without its compensating honor, he has well earned the right to his own place in the inscription upon this noble monument to Whitney, as one who has "revised and brought nearer to completion and edited" the work of the older scholar. So individual, indeed, is the impress of the editor, that Whitney himself would probably have disapproved of some of the features as well as some of the views introduced by the editor. On the other hand, the editor's views and additions are clearly demarcated from those of the translator by an ingenious application of L brackets, which constantly remind the reader that it is the editor who is responsible for what is contained within them. Thus no real harm is done by even a divergence of opinion, and the reader has the benefit of Mr. Lanman's own observations, not to speak of the large amount of matter actually added by him. Only in the preface of the editor and, in part, in his introduction there seems to be a certain redundancy of remarks which might better have been abated. Details in regard to pen-slips, errors of proofreading safely suppressed, even a protest against a German practice in the mechanical issue of books, seem to be, for such a work as this, somewhat otiose, though in general the editor adheres very closely to the business in hand. Strange to say, there is no suitable index. That Griffith's translation has a good index is surely no good reason for Whitney's not having a much better one. A complete topical index would have been a welcome addition, even at the cost of omitting some of the introductory matter. An interesting circumstance connected with the translation is that Roth, who was Whitney's teacher, made a selection of passages from his own (unpublished) German translation of this Veda, from which Whitney incorporated some exegetical matter into his commentary—a fact gracefully commemorated by the editor, who was a pupil both of Whitney and of Roth, in the verses (in Sanskrit and English) with which he closes his preface:

Teacher and teacher's teacher long had wrought
Upon these tomes of ancient Hindu lore,
Till Death did give to one whom both had taught
The task to finish when they were no more.

The Atharva-Veda Collection is a work containing little poetry and philosophy, much magic and bad verse. That it is nearly all in metrical form only brings into stronger relief the absence of poetry. Such philosophy as it contains is only ancillary to the art of the *mantra*-maker or Shaman, who, as in Babylon, Siberia, and elsewhere, has always been the real priest of the people. The Collection, therefore, is rich in curses, in antidotes against disease, in love-charms, in prayers for welfare, long life, and blessings, and whatever else appertains to a corrupted magic built upon older religious material. For there is no primitive magic in these so-called "Hymns," none of that magic from which religion in time differentiates itself. Atharvan magicians are not subduers of natural forces without divine assistance. They are all brought up in the odor of Brahmanic sanctity; they unite prayers with charms; they coerce, but they pray that the power may be effective. In short, as the linguistic comparison of this late Veda with the earlier Rig Veda clearly shows, the magic of the Atharvans is secondary; it is not a primitive voodoo magic, but a mixture of this with a fully developed religious sense. It is primitive only as all gross superstition is primitive, whatever be its time or place. That it contains very ancient elements is probable, but it can never be used as a general body of extremely early magical material. In the Atharva, as in the Rig, the gods are essential. The household priest, who is the Shaman of India, despite his boasts of power relies on the gods. A typical example may be seen in this charm used in a women's rite for obtaining a husband: "The creator (maker) sustains the earth, the sky, and the sun; *may the maker make for* (give to) this spinster a husband that is according to her wish." Or, in a charm for healing: "The berry and remedy, sufficient for life, *the gods prepared.*" Again, against insanity: "May *all the gods* give thee again, that thou mayest be uncrazed."

But if the value of this Veda as a fund of primitive matter is easily overestimated, it is also easy unduly to depreciate what the superstition of the ages has conserved and handed down through devils and gods alike. It is therefore a collection to be used with caution, neither useless nor of extraordinary value. It is rather of unique literary value than religiously extraordinary. Probably most of its practices are already familiar to those versed in other superstitious lore; but it possesses, of course, the exceptional distinction of being the one black book of Hindu "bad magic," though as a collection it is more modern than the other religious works bearing the same general title. As literature, in the sense of fine composition, it has little or no value. Part only is popular; a large part is clearly hieratic. A discussion of these points by the editor would have proved a valuable addition to the present work. The few editorial paragraphs devoted to the Atharva from the point of view of other Vedic literature scarcely touch upon the most important question connected with the subject. It would, we think, have been eminently appropriate to a work marking an era in Vedic study had Mr. Lanman given his own opinion in regard to the place and value of the Atharva in the literary and religious life of India.

In presence of the immense amount of work accomplished in the preparation of these volumes, minute criticism, even had we space for it, would be out of place. An historical introduction and a suitable index are two non-negligible desiderata. Smaller matters are of no account compared with the important matter of publishing the translation of an extremely difficult text, made as true as possible, fortified, hymn by hymn, with an apparatus most painstakingly accurate, and prefaced by an exhaustive review of the condition of manuscripts and other critical matter—all in all, a model of what such a work should be.

The form of the two sightly octavos, the paper, print, and flexible binding, all make a fitting setting to a peculiarly interesting work—the last work of a renowned scholar, which now after many years has been thus ably edited by one who, standing in close relation with the author, seemed best prepared to carry to successful completion the master's unfinished labor. A life and bibliography, together with a fine medallion of Whitney, form part of the varied introductory matter. The cost of these volumes is quite nominal, and need deter no library, scarcely any student, from obtaining this crowning effort of Whitney's philological genius. We congratulate the learned edi-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tor upon reaching the end of his useful and arduous undertaking. It was a great task to assume; it was made harder by reason of the enlarged scope and conscientious particularity with which it was executed; but the task has been accomplished in a manner worthy of Whitney, and than that no higher meed of praise can be bestowed.

Old France in the New World: Quebec in the Seventeenth Century. By James Douglas, LL.D. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co. 1905.

Despite all that has been written on Quebec, Dr. Douglas manages to give us a fresh, unhackneyed and characteristic volume. From such a book (for example) as Sir Gilbert Parker's, it differs *toto cælo*. It is neither an abridgment of Parkman, nor the description by an antiquarian of buildings and fortifications. The elements which enter into it are a sound, first-hand knowledge of the chief sources, an intimate acquaintance with local topography, and a selective talent of unusual fineness. We have long wished to see the history of Quebec treated by one who should know how to bring out alike its connection with France, its place in the life of the whole colony, and its purely social aspects. Dr. Douglas has embodied all these things in his narrative and assigned to them their due proportion.

The battle of Marathon does not owe its importance to the number of combatants engaged. Neither does the interest which attaches to Quebec in the seventeenth century depend upon vastness of numbers, wealth, or intellectual preëminence. Mr. L. O. David, in his recent 'Laurier et son Temps,' styles Arthabaska (where the Premier of Canada passed several years of his life) an intellectual centre of the first order. Dr. Douglas, we imagine, would hardly prefer this claim on behalf of Quebec, at the period with which he deals. Indeed, he is careful in both his text and appendix to point out how meagre were the resources of the capital during its heroic age. In 1620, twelve years after the establishment of the colony, the population was 60; in 1663, it was 800; in 1698, the population of all New France amounted only to 15,355. As for such of the more pretentious buildings as the Church and the Jesuit College, it can only be said in the words of Charlevoix to the Duchesse de Lesdiguières that their beauty depended solely upon the contrast between them and the huts by which they were surrounded. The manor houses of the seigneurial régime in Canada bore little resemblance to the châteaux of Touraine, and the Quebec of Frontenac owed its chief dignity to a magnificent situation.

What really invests Quebec with historic charm is neither the beauty of its edifices nor its direct contribution to the higher culture of the New World. On the purely picturesque side, Dr. Douglas goes to the heart of the matter when he says that, through the establishment of a modified feudalism,

"an impressive antiquity was stamped on New France, and Quebec as the seat of government became an epitome of the Middle Ages, where the Governor as representative of the King, the Seigneur Dominant, held his court and received the homage of his seigneurs in person or by deputy, and where the priests ruled over the conduct and consciences of men as though Luther and Calvin had never resisted the authority of the Church in Europe. For more than another century [*i. e.*, after 1634], the Governor of Canada remained an anomaly on the American continent, and Quebec an anachronism; as picturesque in its religious, social, and official life as in its natural situation."

Matthew Arnold doubtless has something of this sort in mind when he made his invidious comparison between Quebec and Chicago; but we should be giving the reader an imperfect idea of Dr. Douglas's book if we let it be understood that the main motive is to be found in a fondness for romantic associations. His successive chapters are studies of special topics, each of which has an organic connection with the rest. Thus, one after another in coherent sequence, the main features of colonial life are described and discussed—the leading explorations, the question of Church and State, the commercial system, the rivalry of religious orders, the clash of French and English, the social stratification of the settlers. Throughout the whole book we have been impressed by the large amount of general information which Dr. Douglas brings into line with his account of Canadian transactions; contemporary movements in Europe, for example, being much more frequently drawn upon for analogies and suggestions than they are in most monographs on New France or New England.

Our last word of appreciation is claimed by the illustrations. These not only are drawn from authentic sources rather than from works of the modern fancy, but are both varied in scope and admirably selected. Those which illustrate topographical points by the aid of photographs and prints we have found especially interesting. The first and larger title of the volume seems to promise that the same field may yield us still further fruits of Dr. Douglas's leisure. Such an inference, we trust, will not prove incorrect. Meanwhile, the public demand has necessitated a second edition of the 'Quebec.'

Essays and Addresses on Economic Questions, with Introductory Notes. By the Right Honorable Viscount Goschen. London: Arnold; New York: Longmans. 1905.

In making accessible to all students the essays and public addresses here gathered under one cover, Lord Goschen has rendered a distinct service to economic study. Some of the papers, indeed, could be found readily enough by persons who had access to the files of the *Edinburgh Review*; but others, printed only in fugitive form, were difficult to procure, while all were worthy of preservation in convenient dress as part of every economist's working library. Moreover, the value of the original discussions is greatly enhanced by the introductory and supplementary notes, in which the distinguished author explains the circumstances under which each paper was written, or comments upon the subsequent march of events in the fields he had surveyed.

The first two papers, "Seven Per Cent." and "Two Per Cent.," deal with the striking conditions of the British money market in 1864 and 1867. In the former year an extraordinary mania for company promotion had tied up vast amounts of capital in speculative enterprises, many of them organized for the purpose of lending money to foreign borrowers. Under such demands the rate of interest had risen to an average level of 7 per cent. for the year, and the City began to clamor for relief. As usual, the speculators contended that the trouble lay in the lack of elasticity in the banking system established by the Act of 1844, and they clamored for "freedom of banking." We wish that Mr. Goschen's diagnosis of the financial situation in London in 1864 could be read by every New York banker of 1906 who has been shrieking for Congress to come to the aid of our speculators before it is too late. Mr. Goschen pointed out that the high rate of interest was the inevitable result of the unprecedented demand for capital in joint-stock enterprises, both at home and abroad, and that the situation could not be relieved safely by the issue of paper money. The issue of additional banknotes would but encourage speculation, and the old trouble would recur when, as must needs be the case, the issues had come to an end. To complaints of inelasticity in the circulating medium, he replied: "The circulation is not limited. It is at least as unlimited as the supply of gold in the world. And to say that trade must be brought to a standstill if fresh *notes* are not issued, is to confess that fresh supplies of gold can no longer be had. But if this is the case, it is the strongest reason for not issuing those notes, which profess to represent gold." Seven-per-cent. interest, although somewhat disagreeable, had been, in reality, the only available brake upon speculation. The panic of 1866 finally put an end to the building of card-houses, and a period of depression followed. In 1867, when the second paper was written, business enterprise had been paralyzed, and the accumulation of idle capital had reduced the rate of discount to 2 per cent. This furnished Mr. Goschen with both a text and a favorable opportunity to review instructively the financial operations of the previous year.

The third paper, an address on "Our Cash Reserves and Central Stock of Gold," was delivered two months after the Baring failure in 1890, and at a time when the author was Chancellor of the Exchequer. Looking beyond the immediate issues of the hour, Mr. Goschen argued that one of the main difficulties with the situation was that the effective banking reserves of England had been allowed to fall to a dangerously low level. He computed that, excluding the Bank of England, the reserves were, in proportion to liabilities, considerably smaller than they had been in 1879, and showed that some banks were accustomed to reckon "cash on call" as a part of their reserves. Such a situation he declared to be unsatisfactory, inasmuch as it led the City to "rely simply upon the aid which the Bank of England can give in a crisis, and to take no thought how to meet the difficulties which might arise, except by such action as the Bank of England may possibly take, with the Government, as they think, behind it." Moreover, he showed that the growth of other banking institutions had made the Bank of England a smaller factor in the money-market than it had been in former times;

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

so that, as its responsibilities increased, its power to deal with emergencies had probably declined. In a supplementary note, Mr. Goschen discusses the efforts made since 1891 to improve the situation, and expresses the belief that "a most distinct improvement has taken place in the policy of the great majority of banks as regards their cash reserves"—a conclusion that would be more reassuring if it were possible to estimate the extent to which bank statements are affected by "window-dressing."

Best known of all the papers in this volume is the fourth essay, on "The Depreciation of Silver," originally published in 1876. As chairman of the Parliamentary Committee appointed in that year, Mr. Goschen had ample opportunity for studying the silver question, and his views were widely quoted in the "battle of the standards" waged during the next twenty years. The fifth paper, on "The Conditions and Prospects of Trade," presents a careful review of the condition of British commerce in about 1885, and emphasizes the importance of developing commercial relations with the colonies. In his prefatory note Mr. Goschen points out that, "in a modest way," he was then acting as "a missionary of Empire." The sixth paper, on "The Increase of Moderate Incomes," endeavors to elicit from the income-tax returns some conclusions concerning the manner in which wealth is being distributed; and the materials gathered tend to support the proposition that there has been a considerable growth of moderate incomes at the same time that the proportion of large incomes has tended to remain stationary. And this, it is remarked, has occurred under "the steady working of economic laws" and "under a system of commercial and industrial freedom."

Of the three concluding papers, those dealing with "Laissez-faire" and "Ethics and Economics" carry the author further into general theoretical questions than most of his other essays, while the last, on "Insurance: Voluntary or Compulsory," compels him to deal with fundamental questions of social policy. In all of them he shows that firm grasp both of facts and of principles that has characterized his economic writing. The modest preface of the present volume states that the author does not claim to write from the point of view "of a trained and scientific economist," but rather from that of a "man of business" interested in the practical application of his subjects. But, however seriously intended, this disclaimer will hardly be accepted at its face value by the reader who is able to follow Mr. Goschen in his masterly analyses of complicated economic phenomena, and observes how constantly he returns to underlying principles. In fact, our author's readers will probably agree that it would augur well for the future of the science if all "scientific" economists had Mr. Goschen's powers of careful analysis, judicious inference, and perspicuous statement.

The Philosophy of Religion. By George Trumbull Ladd. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905.

The main title, 'Philosophy of Religion' (in itself an unhappy expression), hardly suggests the scope of this work; the subtitle describes it as "a critical and speculative treatise of man's religious experience and development in the light of modern science and reflective thinking." It includes an elaborate statement of man's religious beliefs and practices from the earliest known times to the present, an estimate and a comparison of the great religions, a discussion of the various forms of theistic and anti-theistic belief, of revelation and inspiration, the future of religion, and the future of the individual and the race. The description of religious phenomena is, with a few exceptions, accurate (the chapter on the differentiation of religions is especially good), and the argument is conducted in an attractively calm and candid way, with fair presentation of considerations pro and con, full statement of difficulties, and careful estimation of evidence. Throughout the book there are suggestive remarks. The great extent of the field traversed, and the author's anxiety to make his positions clear, lead to a good deal of repetition. The points on which he lays most stress are the unity of the world, human free selfhood, and the testimony of history to man's religious nature and to the presence among men of the Absolute Spirit.

An undue amount of space appears to be given to the review of early religious phenomena. Religious experience, Dr. Ladd rightly holds, furnishes the material for the establishment of a rational basis of religion. But he himself sees that much of the early material must be rejected; history furnishes as good authority for belief in ghosts as for belief in God. The standard is the experience of the best-disciplined and most spiritual minds; the critic of to-day recognizes only what he regards as rational, and values ancient thought only so far as it agrees with his own—and he himself may be set aside by a future generation. Dr. Ladd is alive to the constantly shifting nature of religious thought, but, with all his care, he does not avoid the mistake of undertaking to characterize some particular religion as a unity (i., 128 ff.). The word "Christianity," for example, means nothing unless the particular period had in mind is given. Every religion, it is true, inherits something from its immediate predecessor, and this latter from what preceded it, and so on back to the beginning; but this process does not justify one in identifying a great modern religion with its savage ancestor. The habit of personifying a religion, and speaking of it as if it possesed a spirit and an energy of its own, is unfortunate, because it tends to blind the eyes to the fact that a religion is simply the expression of the religious ideas of its founder or of the people who profess it. The Yahweh cult of the early Hebrews had little or nothing in common with that of the prophets, and Louis XIV. as little in common with the Sermon on the Mount. The capacity of development and adjustment to new conditions, often ascribed to this or that religion (by Dr. Ladd to Christianity especially), is really the capacity of a given community or race; the Sikhs of India, for example, have reached by their own efforts or instincts a theistic position substantially identical with that of the cultivated Christian world of to-day.

Professor Ladd's main purpose is to define and demonstrate the rational basis of religion. His choice of the word "philosophy" involves an appeal to human reason, and rationality is emphasized throughout the work; the assumption of opposition between reason and religion he calls (i. 307) "the deadliest of all heresies"; he sharply opposes Kant's "schismatic and divisive view of human reason," which "has begot a sort of antithesis between intellect and reason" (i. 304). And yet he is unable to accept in full the supremacy of reason. The investigation of religion, he thinks, must be conducted with "limited reliance" on human reason (i. 24, 37, 40; ii, 71)—the "*non-rational* (which is by no means the same thing as the *contrary to reason*) has its part to play in shaping this [religious] experience" (i. 305). As examples of phenomena that do not admit of a perfect mental representation in the terms of man's rational life he goes on to cite "the beliefs, the sentiments, and the practices of religion." Why, he asks, do we believe in the reality of that which corresponds to our highest ideals? why do we admire and worship it? Now it is true that the impulse to worship the ideal, conceived of as an ethically perfect person, is, in a sense, irrational; such impulses or instincts lie at the foundation of life and are inexplicable by us; so far as they are concerned, religious thought and feeling does not differ from all other thought and feeling. The fundamental question is that of the reality of ideals, which are the product of reason dealing with the material furnished by experience. Dr. Ladd holds that ideals have ontological validity. Against the view that they are mere ideas he protests "in the name not only of history and psychology, of art, ethics, and religion, but also of science and philosophy as well" (ii. 567 f.). The "ontological consciousness" he makes the basis of the belief in God and individual immortality. This question involves the whole of philosophy, and cannot be discussed here. But it is to be observed that the phenomena adduced by Dr. Ladd are not to be thought of as lying outside the sphere of reason, for it is reason that constructs ideals and decides on the validity of the data of the "ontological consciousness." His whole argument, in fact, is conducted with the purpose of showing that religion is justified by reason; his patient investigation of the significance for the life of man here and hereafter of the great mass of facts he has collected, is a tribute to reason.

The philosophic basis of the discussion is given by Dr. Ladd in previous writings, of which the present work may be regarded as a continuation.

The Life of Molière. By Henry M. Trollope. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

To undertake the story of Molière's life and works in an octavo of five hundred and sixty pages is proof of capacity for patient toil, which Mr. Henry M. Trollope thus shares with Anthony of laborious fame. Relying chiefly on French authorities, this work is a full and elaborate compilation of facts, whether important or trivial, which the Moliéristes have vied with Shaksperians in amassing about their subject for subsequent generations to sift. Mr. Trollope's sieve is no fine one. "Facts," he says (p. 79), "may, then, possibly bring a great man closer to our eyes and help to show us what he was like"; but the wished-for effect calls for something more than

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"judicious handling," under which literal treatment a vigorous character and personality are too easily lost for want of the biographical artist's hand and eye.

This is, indeed, the first objection to be urged; in this 'Life' Molière does not live. We could picture an account of him, shorn of a full third of the details in this book, and yet presenting the busy, bustling actor-manager and playwright in the thick of work or pleasure, without the slightest sacrifice of proportion or of biographical dignity, and equally without risk of running into the facility of the mere *causerie*. The very Introduction, of some forty pages, which seeks to convey the dramatic and histrionic setting of the time, is a generously padded expansion of the history of pre-Molièrean comedy in France, to which justice has long been done in a dozen familiar treatises. And from the body of the work we may cite instances in which the carefully tabulated facts are accompanied by a disconcerting undecisiveness in their interpretation. Thus, the authorship of the anonymous publication, 'La Fameuse Comédienne' (1688), which bespattered the name of Molière's widow, remains a mystery; but among conjectures the biographer might well lay more stress on the points brought out by Larroumet, and but lately revived in Mr. H. Noel Williams's 'Queens of the French Stage,' in support of the belief that professional spite had much to do with the actual wording of the libel. Singularly enough, most commentators take such publications seriously, not perceiving that they are, in a sense, the analogues of slanderous modern journalism (p. 109). On page 141, explanation is offered of the name of *Mascarille*, used in more than one of the comedies; it is surely obvious that the *Marquis de Mascarille* of the "Précieuses" is a satirical title, under which Cathos and Madelon, through their silly snobbishness, fail to detect the valet. Mr. Trollope says: "There is a Marquis de Mascarille in his *Précieuses Ridicules*, a comedy of a very different kind from the *Étourdi;* but to suppose that the actor wore a mask in that part would be absurd"! It would, indeed.

This last quotation illustrates the method which has succeeded in swelling the volume. Page after page expands trifles, dilates on the self-evident, amplifies truisms, or digresses into side-issues. The place for such a remark as the following is not in an introduction to Molière's acting, but in an elementary text-book, or in some new stanza from Monsieur de la Palisse: "Acting is seeming to be, but it wants large and often high qualifications" (p. 266).

Contrasting acceptably with such excerpts as the above may be found a number of pages helpful in explaining the spirit and cast of some of the comedies, whose peculiar conditions are not usually so accurately rendered by English critics of Molière because of their omitting to study local or temporal customs determining fundamentals of character-treatment. Mr. Trollope points out clearly (p. 164) that a plausible theory concerning "Les Précieuses Ridicules" holds that the satirist had in view not so much the social leaders of Paris, whose chastening influence on the language he could hardly deny, but their would-be-imitators among the pretentious bourgeoisie. And the discussion of "Tartufe," drawn from French studies, elucidates the position and rôle of the *domestic* director of conscience—the type of spiritual family manager; an "institution" not readily comprehensible without detailed reference to ecclesiastical conditions in France at that time (pp. 355-360). Such examinations illustrate the generally trustworthy accuracy of Mr. Trollope in rendering for English readers the results of French scholarship. His own endeavors at independent judgments are by no means so felicitous. If we turn to chapter viii., which rehearses the now unstimulating comparison and contrast between Shakspere and Molière, we discover that the point of departure is unassailable: "Everybody has not the same ideas about comedy, and everybody will not think about Molière's plays in the same way, for men's humors and their sympathies are often widely different" (p. 175). *Passons au déluge*—to use a quotation as familiar, and at least as apposite, as any in this volume. We can nevertheless feel gratified that the attitude here taken is the polar opposite of the patronizing spirit, which led such critics as Coleridge and Hazlitt to a state of naïve wonderment that any Frenchman could show deep-reaching humor over the weaknesses of his fellow-worms; for Mr. Trollope's bulky work has been executed in a disposition of reverence for the sad-eyed one who extended the sympathetic scope of comedy in treating his own countrymen as eternal types of humankind.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Hartley Burr. Poetry and the Individual. Putnams.
American Men of Science. Edited by J. McKeen Cattell. The Science Press.
Becke, Louis. The Adventures of a Supercargo. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Conant, Levi L. Original Exercises in Plane and Solid Geometry. American Book Co.
Congo, The: A Report of the Commission of Enquiry. Putnams. $1.
Chamberlin, Thomas C., and Rollin D. Salisbury. Geology. Vols. I. and II. Henry Holt & Co.
Crockett, S. R. Fishers of Men. Appleton. $1.50.
Curtis, Edward. Nature and Health. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25 net.
Decharme, Paul. Euripides and the Spirit of his Dramas. Translated by James Loeb. Macmillan Co. $3.
De Quincey's English Mail-Coach and Joan of Arc. Edited by Milton H. Turk. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Elbé, Louis. Future Life in the Light of Ancient Wisdom and Modern Science. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.20 net.
Felt, Ephraim Porter. Insects Affecting Park and Woodland Trees. Albany: N. Y. State Education Department.
Ford, Richard. The Letters of. Edited by Rowland E. Prothero. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Franay, Gabriel. Elaine. Paris: Armand Colin.
Gilman, Daniel Coit. The Launching of a University. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50 net.
Gilson, Roy Rolfe. Miss Primrose. Harpers. $1.25.
Greene, Cordelia A. The Art of Keeping Well. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25 net.
Hardy, E. G. Studies in Roman History. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Hazleton, John. The Declaration of Independence: Its History. Dodd, Mead & Co. $4.50 net.
Higgins, Lothrop D. First Science Book. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Iarfhlaith. White Poppies. Oxford: B. H. Blackwell.
Jespersen, Otto. Growth and Structure of the English Language. Leipzig: Teubner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Karishka, Paul. The Twentieth Century Christ. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. $1 net.
Kemper, G. W. H. The World's Anatomists. F. Blakiston's Son & Co.
Lang, Andrew. Sir Walter Scott. Scribners. $1 net.
Lawrence, William M., and Frederic H. Pease. The Choral Song-Book. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Makepeace, Carrie J. The Whitest Man. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Marks, Mary A. M. The Tree of Knowledge. London: David Nutt.
McLaws, Lafayette. Maid of Athens. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Miles, Eustace. Essays in the Making. London: Rivingtons.
Orth, Samuel P. Five American Politicians. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co. $2 net.
Phillips, Stephen. Nero. Macmillan Co.
Powell, Francis. The Prisoner of Ornith Farm. Scribners.
Ray, Anna Chapin. Hearts and Creeds. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Rogers, Bessie Story. As It May Be. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Runkle, Bertha. The Truth about Tolna. Century Co. $1.50.
Ruskin's Sesame and Lilies. Edited by Mrs. L. G. Hufford. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Scots Peerage. Edited by Sir James Balfour Paul. Vols. II. and III. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Sears, John Henry. Geology of Essex County, Mass. Salem, Mass.
Sharpley, Hugo. A Realist of the Ægean. London: David Nutt.
Silberrad, Una L. Curayl. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Smith, Alexander. General Inorganic Chemistry. Century Co.
Snow, William G., and Thomas Nolan. Ventilation of Buildings. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Somerset, Lady Henry. Under the Arch. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Stevens, Arthur W., and Eugene A. Darling. Practical Rowing and the Effects of Training. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Strang, Herbert. Brown of Moukden. Putnams.
Stratemeyer, Edward. Under Togo for Japan. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.25.
Temple, Archbishop, Memoirs of. Edited by E. G. Sandford. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. $9 per set.
Tilton, Dwight. The Golden Greyhound. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.50.
Vandegrift, Margaret. Umbrellas to Mend. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Van Dyke, John C. The Opal Sea. Scribners. $1.25 net.
Van Norden, Charles. Jesus: An Unfinished Portrait. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1 net.
Williams, Jesse Lynch. The Day-Dreamer... Scribners. $1.25.
Winchester, C. T. The Life of John Wesley. Macmillan Co.
Woodhull, Alfred A. Personal Hygiene. John Wiley & Sons. $1 net.
Woodruff, Chas. E. The Effects of Tropical Light on White Men. Rebman Co.

NATURE AND HEALTH
By EDWARD CURTIS, M.D.
313 pp. $1.25 net, by mail, $1.37.
Informal advice on the care of the body and the home by a well-known physician.
"A capital popular treatise on hygiene. . . . He knows his subject thoroughly, and how to make it clear to the general reader. A great variety of important topics are touched upon; in every instance the exposition is plain, concise, and as thorough as possible under the circumstances. . . . A thoroughly moderate spirit. . . . Deserves to be widely circulated. . . . Full of excellent advice."
—*N. Y. Evening Sun.*
Henry Holt & Co.
29 W. 23D ST., NEW YORK

Importing Notice
We beg to announce that we have greatly extended our facilities for the importation of English books, so that we now are equipped to fill orders of this sort with the greatest efficiency and intelligence.
Promptness, good service and low prices will rule in this department, as they do in all our business.
THE BAKER & TAYLOR CO.
WHOLESALE BOOKSELLERS,
33-37 E. 17th St., Union Sq. North, New York

In Peril of Change *Essays Written in Time of Tranquillity*
By C. F. G. MASTERMAN M. P.
Literary Editor London *Daily News.*
$1.50 net. At all booksellers, or
B. W. HUEBSCH, Publisher, New York

CAROLINA LEE

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED